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Initiating commitment to change : a framework and a process for school managers.

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INITIATING COMMITMENT TO CHANGE:
A FRAMEWORK AND A PROCESS FOR SCHOOL MANAGERS

A dissertation Presented

By

PHILIP HOWARD DE TURK

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August 1971

INITIATING COMMITMENT TO CHANGE--
A FRAMEWORK AND A PROCESS FOR SCHOOL MANAGERS

A Dissertation

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To Freddie Thompson and Kitty Genovese--
alone and without dignity in a senseless world.

PREFACE

The Eight State Project, Designing Education for the Future, prefaces its reports with an oft-quoted statement by H. G. Wells. Human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe. The exhortation invites us to lay the whip to education and to invest heavily in its future. Now let's suppose we are really at the track deciding where we should put our money--on education or on catastrophe? It seems that if we think of education as schooling, the lines at the catastrophe window would be very, very long. A bet on the hundred-to-one shot would just be foolish. Compared to the power and drama of bombs, wars, riots, cancer, and assassins, the meager competition of textbooks, report cards and hot lunches is almost powerless.

Despite other contributing factors, schooling is still a major chunk of what we Americans call education. This prominence keeps our betting decision in doubt. An interesting alternative is suggested. Why not drop our two bucks on catastrophe? Fatalistic? Immoral? Well, even if we are forced to believe that it is immoral to make money in a bear market, we seriously broach the question, "Which is really the disastrous force?" Isn't the catastrophe of an arms race which produces a lunar landing more charitable to mankind than the education in a university which produces campus killings or an urban education which produces not only school dropouts but society dropouts? Education is no longer the great hope, at least as long as present-day schooling is in the saddle.

Schools have fallen out of touch with reality. The traditional roles of students and schools are being reversed. Schools, not students, need Reality Therapy. Schools are the truants of society, the vandals of youth; for isn't student vandalism just retribution for the school's impersonal and, as Eric Erikson says, mindless mutilation of a child's spirit? Schools are the delinquents, and children are the resources for learning. As Silberman says, It is not the children who are disruptive, it is the formal classroom that is disruptive--of childhood itself. Until the school reaches out to the world, uses nature as its classroom and reality as its curriculum, it is at best irrelevant

and at worst disabling. The school must humbly and emotionally lift the minds of children in a vigorous embrace of trust.

We do not seriously side with holocaust, but it may take a holocaust before education becomes a real contender in the race for human survival. Fear of Russia's dominance in space spurred a major effort to change. John Blackie (Inside the Primary School) tells us that the British integrated day program began when urban teachers and their pupils were evacuated because of the World War II bombing raids. Teachers who had taught the same stuff in the same city classrooms for fifteen years found themselves in the fens, or the hills, or the farmlands... where they were the only link with the children's background, and they simply had to re-think what they were doing.

Catastrophe or no catastrophe, we in schooling must vigorously and radically re-think what we are doing. We must question the very existence of the institution we call school. Educators and society in general have convinced themselves that change for change's sake is wrong when in reality change is not a moral issue. Change may be political but it is also inevitable. To deny the validity of change is to deny growth, decay, animation, birth, death, seasons, time and learning. Institutions and organizations which resist change are monuments to the past, historic relics, useful only for romantic trips down memory lane. Organiza-

tions which are relevant are embodiments of change. They are part and parcel of change. We must now make massive effort to change the School and all its members. If we do not do this, there will be no race for mankind, for catastrophe and education will have become one and the same.

In terms of Reality Therapy, before one can successfully change behavior, one must be involved. We would like to take education, and educators, firmly by the shoulders and shake like fury, not to destroy them, not even to chastise them, but simply to wake them up and get them involved. This dissertation will provide that opportunity--a framework and a process for initiating commitment to change.

The author acknowledges his gratitude to Barbara, Dick and Bob for their help and confidence--

also to

Dwight Allen, Paul Sorensen and r. jones for their assistance
but mostly to Barbara.

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INTRODUCTION

"What I like doing best is Nothing."

"How do you do Nothing," asked Pooh, after he had wondered for a long time.

"Well, it's when people call out at you just as you're going off to do it, What are you going to do, Christopher Robin, and you say, Oh, nothing, and then you go and do it."

"Oh, I see," said Pooh.

A. A. Milne

This dissertation is about man--his values, his instincts, his humanity and his dignity. A management framework about to be developed is one example of a perspective which views man as a determining, an achieving and a learning animal. It further assumes that he thoroughly enjoys the acts of determining, achieving and learning. Dignity and involvement are the central themes of this study although those sentiments will necessarily be lurking behind the fine literalism of educational research and theory.

In an effort to establish a frame of reference and a very general historical background to the problem, this introduction will picture in broad brushstrokes man's relation to the world, relation to himself and relation to mythology. Several areas will be specified:

(1) The "fall" of reason as a force for societal structure and individual choice;

(2) The uncontained growth of Organization

as a challenge to individual dignity;

(3) The paralysis of man as a decision maker able and willing to cope with life;

(4) The impotency of school as an institution equipped to promote and carry out education;

(5) The slow pace and superficiality of educational change.

Finally, it will be indicated that the use of will might enable man to move towards a revitalized condition.

The "Reasonable" World

In the historic sweep of overpopulation, overkill, crime, international wars (hot and cold), prosperity and poverty and most of all the growing desperation of each man as he questions how much influence he has on his own future, America has given birth to a new age, The Age of Dissociation.

Cracks in the foundation were first recognized by young people. They began to doubt the entire blueprint of society. They thought of it as a matchstick structure. They probed and prodded to test it. Their beliefs were confirmed when they found that with slight pushes, whole sections easily collapsed. A new wind swept across the country and with it new words--defoliation, Watts, Kent State, Woodstock, grass, Chicago, Joplin, Little Rock, Ralph Nader, Angela Davis, Eugene McCarthy, McLuhan, Beatles, sexual freedom, Donora, Black Panthers, Cambodia, Berkeley, Sharon Tate,

Timothy Leary, Calley, Kennedy, Kennedy and King.

These words and names created new meanings, new symbols. A new language was born. Old reasons lost their reason. Facts, reasons, morality lost their influence. It was as though a new generation rejected rationality in favor of the more intimate words, "I have a dream!"

Communes replaced families, the drug culture became an evolutionary reality, women demanded liberation, police were pigs. The country polarized into those who wanted to change structure and morality and those who wanted to maintain them. Polarization was underlined by violence and assassination. At one pole resided disbelief, amorality, emotion and disorder and at the other pole were facts, concepts, presumptions, assumptions, theories and laws. Youth, as Paul Goodman says, "had so well learned that physical and sociological research is subsidized and conducted for the benefit of the ruling class that they did not believe there was such a thing as simple truth." The student protest was more than a charge on Bastillian institutions. It had to do, as Goodman further says, "with a religious crisis of the magnitude of the Reformation in the fifteen-hundreds." (Goodman, 1969) It was no coincidence that most of the movie Alice's Restaurant was filmed in a church.

In Five Easy Pieces the comfortable, indulgent fabric of society--mesmorized into dissemblance by worshiping its own creations, its "easy pieces"--is shattered by a renegade

oil rigger. Attacking a woman professor...who is theorizing...in a Victorian sitting room...physically isolated from the world...with a "cultural" family..., the dissenter explodes, "You damned celibate; you're full of shit!"

The same frustration and delusion of contemporary culture are pictured in David Halberstam's (1971) vivid, sympathetic/pathetic portrait of Robert McNamara--the Great Statistician, as he is called by Halberstam. McNamara, the corporate man, the genius of cost-effectiveness and computerized systems analysis builds every argument on facts and attacks others for their lack of data. "How much? What percentage did it have, and what percentage doesn't it have now? Where is your data? Give me something I can put in the computer," says McNamara. "Don't give me your poetry. All you do is go around and find someone who's against this thing and then you listen to him. That's your data base."

Kill statistics, numbers of wounded, cost effectiveness were the weapons for decision making during the McNamara days in Defense. And we go on evaluating our success in Vietnam by the number of slaughtered enemies. It is all seemingly correct--the rational way to decide--except that a few insights indicate otherwise. In Vietnam where a colonel was briefing McNamara "out it came, all quantified, with percentages and indices. McNamara was fascinated.... The colonel's performance was so blatant it was like a satire, and one of the reporters began to laugh and had to leave the

tent."

Halberstam later pictures McNamara as the man who "knew data." "At his desk, on planes, in Saigon, pouring over page after page of details about each province, each district, each company, battalion, platoon, squad. All those statistics. All lies."

Halberstam sums up the statistical approach to war and possibly all systems decision-making when he remarks about McNamara and his associates, "Rational men making rational decisions based on totally irrational assumptions." The author questions Halberstam's assumption that assumptions should be rational. Nevertheless, the point is that assumptions as well as facts must be questioned. And that statement is instinctive to today's dissenters; it is meaningless to those who wish to strengthen existing structures. That there is a dualism today there can be no doubt. Basic assumptions about decision making, private and corporate, must be questioned in light of those differences.

The Malignancy of Monopolism

Man was slow to react to this dilemma, although there had long been symptoms of the disease. The massive growth of organizations, not so much in numbers but in size and influence, has been brought to our attention periodically and significantly. Between 1919 and 1930 there were some 2100 corporate mergers. Between 1945 and 1953 there were

7500 mergers, (Katz and Kahn, 1966) In 1955 the AF of L and the CIO joined forces. First, at the turn of the century, we made efforts to reform the ruthlessness, the illegality, the immorality in stockyards, railroads and banks.

Irving Stone describes the Pullman Land Company in Clarence Darrow for the Defense:

In order to work for the Pullman Palace Car Company, employees lived in what the advertisement described, "...a perfectly equipped town of 12,000 inhabitants...bordered by bright beds of flowers and green velvety stretches of lawn...where homes are...filled with pure air and light...." In reality "four and five families crowded into each railroad flat, all families using one toilet," costing 20 to 40 per cent higher than attractive neighboring communities. "The inhabitants were constantly spied upon...with the first attempt of a man to join a union he was fired, his family turned out of their home, his name entered on a black list and sent to every railroad in the country." George Pullman "created for himself a feudal village... where he could take back in rent the better part of the wages he paid them."

World War I left us effervescent and fearless for ten years until the virulence of business life climaxed in a head-on crash. People were so broken and dehumanized by the depression that, as the movie so vividly stated, they desperately anguished, They Shoot Horses, Don't They.

After the distraction of World War II we again began to feel uneasy as we gradually grew to realize the extent of the organizational growth. We found ourselves engulfed by complexes and conglomerates so vast that even their owners and managers (if they could be identified) could not specify their boundaries. Now the fight was even more difficult

because our "defense attorney," the government, was a partner--the military-industrial complex, the television networks, the utilities, the education industry, the transportation industry.

And now as another war winds down we have focused on the world that has been left. As the number of automobile firms and media services are reduced, we ask what is corporate metastasis doing to the planet, the environment? As The Organization Man became a fact, some of the disillusioned hesitated, twitched and wondered. And the youngest, because they had not grown accustomed to the inevitability of the take-over, attacked head on. It was a blunt and revealing attack. They criticized not only industries, but the way people worked in them and reacted to them. They criticized commuting and gray suits and sex and alcoholic parents and WASPS and political conventions and money. And they chose the ideal target for their disassociation--not organizations, not automation, not even government, but--The Establishment. For it is not corporations or technology or politics which is at fault. The cancer in our society is our tolerance of, membership in, and unquestioning allegiance to The Establishment.

Man in the Technotronic Age

The sweep of recent history which is reforming our culture is also having massive effects on us as individuals.

We have become paralyzed by the accumulative influence of scientific and technological progress.

Two decades ago periodicals asked, "Who Will Be In Control, Man or Machine?" Automation and its effect on the worker was the social issue of the day. We no longer hear much about these fears. They have gone underground. Not long ago they were issues for classroom, cocktail party, or coffee break debate. Now they are un American, unhuman. To bring up these questions now injects poison into the soul of man.

McLuhan even suggests that the new generation is now convinced. "In a sense one can say that automation is cool, whereas the older mechanical kinds of specialist or fragmented 'jobs' are 'square.'" In the late fifties magazines discussed whether we should allow our neighbor to share our bomb shelter. Suburbanites could choose between a swimming pool or a shelter. We no longer discuss the shelter, pretending that the bomb has gone away.

The meaning and purpose of man in the context of this scientific revolution and its future shock are a matter of doubt and deep anxiety. We have come to doubt our existence, our intelligence, our ability to act, our "God-given" dominion over the land. The mythology man has created to explain himself has lost its magic. Many intelligent young people ask, "Why defend ourselves?" "Why vote?" "Why?"

A decade ago the titles of those same magazines asked, "Is God Dead?" Reestablishing our national purpose, reprioritizing our goals, asking ourselves what we believed in became the topic of the day. But there were no answers here, just as there had been none for automation or fission. We were victims of evolution. We can do nothing about our purpose. Things are happening too fast, too inevitably. We have enough problems of our own now, anyway.

Now the market for media is in ecology. What can we do to save our world? Here, too, the glacial magnitude of change will make the task too awesome for most. Some minor river cleanups, a few air filters, a political change and an SST defeat here and there will not withstand the forces of fear, desperation, paralysis, and inevitability.

The prophecy suggests that eventually the newsstands will ask, "What is happening to us, to our minds and spirits?" A new religion to comfort our fears will be created, is being created--part escape, part social-psychological, part ritual and part moral. A new mythology with new answers and new hopes will be formulated. That new mythology descending from Albert Camus, Marshall McLuhan, Buckminster Fuller, Federico Fellini, Abbie Hoffman, Bobbie Seale, will be written by a generation now surfacing. There will be a new revelation of the spirit. The cycle will begin again. But the movement is always downhill--a relentless snowball that slowly eliminates spontaneity and difference.

Are we really this hopelessly victimized by entropy?

Well, who does control us--man or machine? In an age when we have completely automated machines which can clean every square inch (even every cubic inch) of home and office building, how do our interiors get cleaned? We use charwomen and men. We use them because our puritan ethic tells us it is wrong for them to be paid for doing nothing. Man, therefore, performs the menial tasks.

Who controls us--man or machine? In an age when man has ingeniously created the means to do the dirty work, how are the really human decisions made? With department stores, government offices, and giant corporations, the answer to a complaint or question always follows the same pattern; "I don't know how that happened." "That's not my department; see Mr._____." Or "the billing machine goofed, just be patient." We are governed by robots--both mechanical and human.

Stewart Udall recalled his Kafkaesque arrest over a 95 cent pack of cigars in December, 1970. The former Secretary of the Interior explained: "Once the arrest was made, everyone I turned to--the arresting officer, the store manager, the justice of the peace--who later described my arrest as 'ridiculous'--met my pleas with the statement: 'It's out of my hands. I have no authority to do anything.'" (Newsweek, February 8, 1971) Clearly man is not making the decisions.

Technology, social change, population increase, whatever the cause it is the rare man today who admits to responsibility and an ability and willingness to act on it. We procrastinate, pass the buck or more subtly build enormously complex schemes to hide our paresis. Originally intended to induce action, scientific managerial techniques such as PPBS, PERT, Network Analysis, Five-year plans, T-grouping have often been used to mollify our guilt and indecisiveness. They stand as monuments to our shock and human abdication. "Let someone else be blamed. Don't offer to do anything. Don't be the fall guy. I don't know what's going on. Don't ask me."

We have not only abdicated control to the machine, we have come to depend on it even for the things it cannot do. "Give me something I can put in a computer." Send data through several hoops, screens and feedback loops, throw in a batch of objectives and alternatives, send off to several committees, mix gently, add a dash of faith and a decision will eventually crank itself out.

The author had a high school mathematics teacher who, when angered, would facetiously announce, "I'm just like a barber. All you have to do is bring in the head and I'll learn you." Many educationists are saying the same thing today, with one slight change. They are deadly serious!

Educational Taxidermy

The institution of school has been left at the starting gate in the race of change. It is as impotent as a candle or a collection of candles trying to light a city. The city has outgrown its need for schools except for an occasional reflection on mythological romance. Sadly, in a new society with new myths, school buildings, school books and school teachers have no place. They are analogous to the red light at an empty intersection. Based on a test of some previous traffic condition, the light has been programmed so that we wait and tolerate the completion of its meaningless activity. Schools are full of these stoplights--its curriculum (Latin, geometry, grammar), its time schedule (eight to three, nine months), its laws and regulations (requirements, attendance, certification)--which indiscriminately (sometimes discriminatingly) and automatically retard human progress.

Schools have lost much of their meaning because they have come to exist for the satisfaction of employees rather than consumers. Student curriculum is determined by teacher interest and teacher competency. Student rules are determined by teacher and administrative tolerance.

The amount of planning for students, judgment of teacher competency, size and nature of student groups, even the times students can be in "their" schools, are all being determined by teachers and organizations of teachers.

Student behavior is synonomous with teaching objectives. Education and discipline which are really self-development activities have been translated by schools into other-directed activities. "What is learned must be taught." The math teacher said it all. "You bring in the head; I'll learn you."

Many things about school from the tyranny of grades to the liberalism of individualized instruction suggests that the school is teacher oriented, not student oriented. Many students and parents have accepted without question the validity of unrelated teachable fragments often referred to as "basic skills." English, algebra, spelling, linguistics, history are each little bags of medicine to be administered by a teacher for the teacher's convenience. They are relatively easy to teach.

One teacher who is designing an alternative school for 200 high school students has found that her greatest challenge is convincing not the other teachers, administrators or parents but convincing the students involved. They are not at all eager to accept aesthetics, human sensitivity and morality as parts of the curriculum. As she said, "eliminating the regular forty-five minute chunks is taking away their security blankets."

The emphasis is on ingesting material into the brain whether or not the brain is receptive or in need. The logistics of schooling make it impossible for the teacher to

direct every student's intravenous flow. But there are answers to that--instructional objectives and programmed instruction. Instructional (or behavioral) objectives are not objectives at all; they are regulators, evaluators. They indicate to the teacher (when the teacher is available) if the student has assimilated the required material. Programmed instruction booklets and machines are juiced up with variable media for learning and pretest posttest evaluations, nonsequenced packets and vocational subjects, but the theme is the same--stuff it in and make it look real. The theory of behavioralism is half a century old, but it is still the modus cperandi. In organizational terms we are still tout-ing the "efficiency expert." How to do it better is often the quest, not why is it being done. The criterion for "quality education" is clearly accountability, not pupil growth.

The teacher thus determines behavior, sometimes by proxy. Students are not trusted or believed capable of finding their own food or preparing it or eating it. All they can do is regurgitate it and that only according to teacher instructions. A subtle damage this process incurs is that it sets a model for young people. That is, it trains people not to act unless told and to let Big Daddy make all the decisions. And teachers, too, (also victims of the monster) are neither acting nor deciding. They are going through the mechanical motions, passing on the old

mythology. J. Abner Pettiwell says it well in Saber Tooth Curriculum, "They do have something they call education but it is just a collection of traditional activities, a machine which they worship for its own sake."

Since the pattern is eternally repetitive, the administrator has no decisions to make. He must only maintain the system, keep up its appearances. He is the Mr. Joyboy whose job it is to keep the Loved One looking well even though it has been in a horrible accident. He keeps attendance, directs the traffic flow, reports to the parents, supervises the lunch, checks the lesson plans, guards the supplies and directs the penal system.

Society, institutions and individuals have been rendered almost helpless by the tidal wave of 20th century change. Our age is characterized by isolation, autism, and ennui. Our abdication of responsibility as individuals is reflected in our desperate attachment to drugs, governmental control and technological "progress." We are regulated by our institutions, and ironically those institutions become less and less relevant as our blind allegiance to them grows. Schools are particularly becoming less operative. They have a long tradition of resistance to innovation. Compounded by the rapid increase in change they grow further and further away from the needs of those they are intended to serve.

Educational Cosmetology

This is the climate, then, in which man finds himself. How does he move from shock and apathy to confidence and action? What does a teacher do, or an administrator, or a team of teachers, or a school board or a community?

The usual thing done is to look around for something new. The "Let's Look at This" attitude prevails. New curriculum packages, new training programs, new staffing patterns, new schedules are tacked on to the old system. The ground is turned over once, new grass seed is sown and discouragement sets in when large patches of barren earth remain and the new weeds outnumber the new blades.

This is the cosmetic approach to change--a blob here and a blob there, a bandage here and a pill there, a little rouge here and some cream there. The questions "Why are we doing this?" and "What are we doing?" and "Why do we exist?" are never asked. In the game of change they must always be asked. Dwight Allen says it best when he asks, "Are you interested in change, or are you interested in your own survival?" It makes a difference.

Robert F. Kennedy said in 1967:

We pass bills and appropriate money and assuage our consciences, and local school systems keep right on doing things they way they've done them for decades. The kids in the ghettos will never recover unless we do something right now. We can't wait ten years. (The New York Times, July 25, 1967, p. 14)

In industry and even government, practices like PPBS

have become routine by the time schools are first beginning to consider their use. Computers (in their fifth generation) are essential to businesses to meet increasing demands and to keep down costs. At the same time people in schools are arguing whether computers are too complex to use and whether their expense can be justified.

In medicine and agriculture new practices (e.g., heart transplants) become standard procedure in 15 years or less. In education new practices (team teaching, flexible scheduling) are still innovative and used in only 3 per cent of the schools after 15 years. In fact, evidence has shown that it sometimes takes 50 years for a significant new school practice to become reasonably accepted.

Within five years after Jonas Salk introduced a vaccine for poliomyelitis, most of the children in the country were immune to the disease. In 1873 kindergartens were introduced to the St. Louis school system. By 1972 50 per cent of the school systems in the country will be without kindergartens.

Sesame Street may have done in one year for pre-schoolers what educators in public schools could not do in 100 years. The Dorsett Company is at each schoolhouse door waiting to be asked inside to solve problems the school cannot cope with.

Evidence shows that many important school objectives are not set by administrators but by outside pressures.

Sputnik, the President's health program, state requirements, university prerequisites, bandwagon innovations, textbook companies, budget cuts and booster clubs determine the school curriculum. The movement toward performance contracting--the letting of educational problems to be solved by private industry--may be one more example of administrative abdication. This study will argue that instead of "selling out" to industry and other outside influences, educators should borrow their theories and practices in establishing education directions for the future.

Innovation is not a product, but somehow it becomes sold as a product. "What innovation are you using now?" The process of innovating should be used to expose deficiencies and diseases, not to conceal them. Are we willing to do this? It takes daring. It is not a new process to accomplish old goals. An innovation is not a new appliance to be plugged in for instant can opening. Rather, it is, as Peter Drucker says, "a new view of the universe, as one of risk rather than of chance or of certainty. It is a new view of man's role in the universe; he creates order by taking risks. And this means that innovation, rather than being an assertion of human power, is an acceptance of human responsibility." (Drucker, 1964)

The question is primarily one of risk and will. How do you change a desire for action into a willingness to act? Hopefully this dissertation will make that transference

easier for individuals contemplating change.

Not long ago the author served as a staff member (not a consultant) on a school committee which was established to make a thorough exploration of school staffing utilization and procedures. The committee was well represented by teachers, superintendent, school board and community. It had the competent advice and involvement of university consultants. The members of this committee were young, energetic, intelligent, interested in innovation. The Assistant Superintendent thought it a Blue Ribbon Committee and tabbed it The Committee of Fourteen.

Yet at the end of one year of deliberation, determination and even consensus, little was produced. A list of final recommendations and a last gasp, half-supported experiment in one elementary school left the entire district staff confused, upset and resistant to change. Undoubtedly this experience is common to many communities, possibly even in many non-educational situations. The process was "textbook classical," the people well chosen. The effort received financial backing. The committee really operated in the best of circumstances. For the most part it failed. Why?

It failed because it didn't know how to act. It couldn't translate words into deeds. It knew what it wanted to do but didn't know how to do it. It probably even knew how to do it. It just didn't.

A year later the author met as a consultant with a

team of teachers from an inner city school. The purpose was similar, to explore how they were utilizing personnel and how effective they were in relating to, and meeting the needs of, students. In a day and a half those teachers redesigned their entire curriculum. The old time schedule was thrown out and a new one developed. Entirely new roles and new responsibilities were created for each team member. Tasks were assigned to implement major educational changes, and preliminary reports (complete with diagrams and charts) were given three days later. Within this time a transitional period of time was built to orient the students. New classroom materials were collected and communication with the rest of the school was initiated. The team decision-making process itself was completely revised. Most important these teachers designed and implemented a program that enabled them to personally relate to students in a way that was most comfortable for the teachers and most meaningful for the students. The teachers were able to do what they wanted to do and that was to help kids.

What happened in the year between these two events? What caused the difference? Why was one group able to do in one and a half days what the other group could not do in a year? In the second situation a specific technique was used to facilitate group decision making. Granted, many, many other facts were different. But the simple process of being able to help a group of people come to some decision from

the despair of their ambiguity and then to act on that decision was a contributing factor.

That process is at the heart of this dissertation. It is absurdly simple, but simplicity is its beauty. When a child is rendered dysfunctional by disease or by an accident or by fear, a simple movement can be a thing of great joy and hope.

Our society, our organizations, our schools have been paralyzed by our inability to respond to a frenetic world. It is hoped that the framework here developed will allow a very first step, a real desire to improve--a management framework to initiate commitment to change.

CHAPTER I

A CONCEPTUAL STUDY

Purpose

The intent of this work is to present to school administrators and other educational managers a conceptual approach and a problem solving process which will enable them to better initiate institutional change and self-renewal. The conceptual approach consists of several elements: the theoretical assumptions listed in Chapter IV, the organizational framework described in Chapter V, and the process variables discussed in Chapter VII. Derived from this approach---theoretical, organizational and procedural--a management process is defined in Chapter VI, which is particularly complementary to the structural framework suggested.

The framework is called Collective Activism. It will combine certain assumptions and organizational techniques to facilitate performance and renewal. The more specific process is called OUTCOM. It is a short, intensive, retreat, real-time, working session of administrators or teachers from a school or school system in which they will jointly develop Objectives, Unity, Target dates and Commitment to a plan of operation.

Three elements will be interdependently joined in

the development of this study:

- (1) feasible school policy and practice,
- (2) organizational theory,
- (3) contemporary business and industrial practice.

By using selected theories of organization, management, psychology, behavior and change; a tested management problem-solving technique; and other modern business practices, the author will try to provide educational managers with a new and stimulating way of looking at their functions and their activities.

Hopefully Collective Activism and OUTCOM will

-focus attention on priorities and action planning by transferring administrative maintenance concerns into a determination of objectives and tasks for future directions. They thus emphasize the managing function of leadership and de-emphasize the "administration" function.

-blend organizational theory with managerial practice to facilitate educational organizing and planning.

-enhance the ability of school administrators to deal with external and internal pressures (a responsive attitude toward change) and also help them to shape the educational and social future (an initiating attitude toward change).

A confrontation between organizational theory and organizational action is exhibited. By organizational theory is meant the writings of those men who have influenced or created schools of thought related to organization struc-

tures, management, and change. Organizational action involves specific management techniques currently used as operating procedures in certain organizations. Both theory and practice are worlds of ambiguity. We hope that by uniting specific theoretical variables with specific management procedures we will establish a corner of order in that world of confusion. This will be our contribution to knowledge.

Significance

It can be asked, "What is new about the theory and process being developed?" "Haven't groups been going off to resort hotels for years in an effort to gird up their loins?" There are possibly three aspects of this dissertation which make it a unique contribution to knowledge.

(1) It uses contemporary, proven, experience-produced management techniques. Its feet are firmly on the ground. It is no grand swirl of rhetoric for graduate administration students. Business needs, not university requirements, helped to develop the framework and process described.

(2) The adaptation of a Management Action Program to education gives educators a much-needed management tool. School administrators now have difficulty coping with all the internal and external pressures on the school system. OUTCOM provides a technique for immediate use which will help educational leaders to meet the challenge of change. Again the emphasis is on something useful, something helpful, something

more than another "good idea." This process enables educators to make some sense, with relatively little investment, of the incredibly complex demands placed on those responsible for schooling today.

(3) A theoretical rationale is established for a framework of operation. An attempt is made to justify Collective Activism both in the context of historical theoretical developments and in light of what is needed and what is appropriate within the school setting. The large framework, Collective Activism, may have implications that go well beyond the problems of public and private school systems. This possibility is reflected, of course, by some of the concerns voiced in the introduction.

The intent is to take these three simple ingredients and to join them into a powerful statement which could produce a chain reaction of possibilities for administrators, teachers, citizens and students.

There is critical, survival need for new perspectives in education and especially in educational management. It hardly seems necessary to elaborate on the importance of an attempt to develop valid methods of examining and hopefully solving some of the crucial problems facing educators today. As education becomes more and more stifled by indecision, it falls further and further behind in the march of reality. It is, as Alvin Toffler says, "a hopeless anachronism" even in our most heralded institutions. "Our schools face backward

toward a dying system, rather than forward to the emerging new society." (Toffler, 1970)

Form

This dissertation will attempt to make a case for a dynamic and vital approach to organizational structure and process. In building this case there will be both positive and negative reactions to some organizational theory. The reactions against some of the management planning schemes, the awkward intrusion of some business and military solutions to educational problems, the preoccupation of some administrators for school maintenance, the misguided concern for behavioralism and the voracious appetite of many educators for quick solutions will give a reasonable turning board to push off in a different, possibly more enlightened direction. These, in fact, are at the heart of this enterprise--an attempt to design an organizational approach that will allow man to be creative, achieving, personal and dignified.

An isolated reliance on the laboratory maze will purposely be avoided. Information will be cited from many sources--conceptualization, experimentation, opinion, artistic expression. The author has no quarrel with science. Obviously, scientific method is enormously important in the search for a better world and a better way to understand that world. Furthermore, there is much to learn from all branches of science--social and physical--in the application and

analogizing of their findings to organizational characteristics and procedures.

The attempt of this dissertation, however, is to show that educators must accept a new world of technology, media, and liberation. Preaching this without responding to and using diverse cues in the content of the dissertation would be somewhat inconsistent and hypocritical.

It seems to be just as natural to manipulate laboratory facts for individual research efforts as it is to choose some paintings and reject others for private art collections. There is no authority for truth except each individual who arranges his own world according to his unique selection system.

Commercial writings and films have purposely been included as background material. The arts are a valid ground for the building of ideas, for the arts as much as any other source of information have put the useless to rest while heralding the new. McLuhan writes, "Art as radar acts as 'an early alarm system,' as it were, enabling us to discover social and psychic targets in lots of time to prepare to cope with them." A real regret, then, is that the resources, the skill and the ambition are not available to present this study in dramatic form with real actors, electronic music and laser beam lighting, for then the medium would be the message--an educational happening in three dimensional mixed media.

Approach

Two overriding stimuli produced this study. One was a desperate disillusionment with the traditional management or "managing" of education. There is no hope for a "new education" if problems are "solved" within the current educational structure; that is, as long as decisions are made (or not made) by teachers in classrooms, principals and superintendents in closed offices or administrator meetings, school boards in bi-weekly cost-cutting haggles, students treadmilling in groups, or parents wondering whether they should call teachers or vote down budgets. The school is a self-perpetuatingly unapproachable establishment. It is not surprising that when the structure is radically altered, as it has been in the Philadelphia Parkway School or the Chicago Metro School, students are most enthusiastic about two basic results: they are involved in decisions, and they can "talk to" teachers. (Metro, 1970)

The second force was a growing awareness of some of the procedures used by organizations other than schools to face and overcome very similar circumstances. As these successful procedures were analyzed, the temptation grew to apply them to schools. Why wouldn't they work in an educational setting? Two factors were obvious: the aims of business and the aims of education are apparently different; and the present structure and attitudes of schooling do not permit the intrusion of certain business practices.

Thus the problem became one of finding some common roots. Tracing back through the historical development of organizational theory, elements common to business and education were found. Though some practices growing up through a business environment have taken on characteristics which might be incompatible with schooling, there is reason to believe that seeding those elements in an educational setting would allow appropriate educational characteristics to develop.

Another important factor was realized. Structures may develop according to organizational goals and objectives, but goals and objectives are then severely limited by the structure developed. Thus all the theoretical talk about revising organizational aims results in little progress because of structural restrictions. The concepts of structural change, temporary organizations and even institutional destruction are important for this reason.

The author's thought process leading to the development of a dissertation was as follows:

(1) Recognition of a management need in education.

(2) Recognition of different management practices in business and industry.

(3) Tracing organizational literature back through history to find the theoretical points of departure taken by some progressive organizations.

(4) Building a new concept of educational management and organizing to facilitate change based on selected

theoretical directions.

(5) Applying promising change techniques within the revised framework to begin a perpetual cycle of renewal.

(6) Focusing on the process of problem solving as the source of energy for that cyclical activity.

From the parents of action and theory a model for looking at how organizations might deal with their internal and external environments has been constructed. This model called Collective Activism becomes a dominating ingredient of this dissertation. It consists of selected variables in practice and theory which seem most compatible. It provides an attitudinal environment in which OUTCOM as a specific technique can be used effectively.

A basic tenet of Collective Activism is to demand performance from actors in organizations. Collective Activism asks the performers to find the action and then to play the game. Keeping score, observing, and analyzing are left to the Monday morning quarterbacks.

Educators often seem to be spectators rather than participants. While others call plays and throw passes, educators keep records. While surgeons and their teams remove diseased and unnecessary parts, educators stand alone treating symptoms. Occasionally they take out a part, turn it over a few times, and stuff it back in. They do not become involved in the future; rather they content themselves with assessing blame, commenting on trends, maintaining the plant, treating

the petty and not so petty crises of the present in an effort to justify and correct the misdiagnoses and gross mistakes of the past.

The amusing parody of an analysis session between Dr. Gillupsie and his resident surgeons at Blear General Hospital in Teaching as a Subversive Activity parodies this not so amusing reality. When one surgeon who had three patients die in a week asks Gillupsie for advice, the reply is, "Bad patients, son, bad patients. There's nothing a good doctor can do about bad patients." (Postman and Weingartner, 1969) Examples of educators as rather detached keepers of the plant are cited by Silberman.

-Instructions to students about use of random access teaching equipment--"Please do not ask unnecessary questions about its operation."

-On evaluation--"The purpose of evaluation is rating: to produce grades that enable administrators to rate and sort children..."

-On innovation, Goodlad and Anderson write--"Many of the so-called nongraded programs are little different from the graded plans they replaced."

-On administrators and administration--"...mindlessness and slavish adherence to routine for the sake of routine. It is in a sense, built into their job description and into the way in which they view their role. Most schools are organized and run to facilitate order; the principal or

superintendent is considered, and considers himself, a manager whose job is to keep the organization running as efficiently as possible." (Silberman, 1970)

Collective Activism generates another way of operating. The hope of this dissertation is that more educators will experience the challenge of influencing the future by stressing a demand for performance from themselves and others.

Procedure

Chapters II and III will review literature and practices in organizations (II) and more specifically in schools (III). Chapter IV summarizes this research base. Chapter V develops an organizational framework (Collective Activism) for management in schools. Chapter VI reviews a process (OUTCOM) for educational managers to initiate commitment. Chapter VII matches the elements of Collective Activism and OUTCOM to theoretical variables. Chapter VIII explores the implications, the problems and the potential of the study.

In the course of this study various layers of complexity--sociological, organizational and psychological--will be stripped away to get at a specific "neurological" synapse.

The particular synapse examined is that of management decision making. As the protective accommodations are pulled away, the gap between stimulus and action is exposed. The stimulus is the ever-present management appetite, "We know what our problems are; we know what we want to do." The

action potential of knowing-there-is-something-to-be-done can be transformed to power a course of action. Hopefully this transformation will release the tension, create a resolution, and bring satisfaction to the actors individually and collectively. The attempt, then, will be to bridge the gap of decision making frustration, particularly as it is evidenced in schools.

CHAPTER II

RATIONALE--ORGANIZATIONS, THEORY AND PRACTICE

"Hallo!" said Piglet, "what are you doing?"
"Hunting," said Pooh.
"Hunting what?"
"Tracking something," said Winnie-the-Pooh very mysteriously.
"Tracking what?" said Piglet, coming closer.
"That's just what I ask myself. I ask myself, What?"
"What do you think you'll answer?"
"I shall have to wait until I catch up with it," said Winnie-the-Pooh.

A. A. Milne

Re-Searching

The exercise of reviewing literature is not dissimilar to Pooh's search. Although we have something in mind, we're not at all sure what or where we're going, or what we're going to find. The greatest difficulty is in finding a finish, for there are no finishes. One can wonder what Columbus's first words were on reaching the unfamiliar shore. They could have been sighs of relief or they could have been obscenities. The one thing we can be sure of, they were not, "Ahah! America!"

Exploration is open ended and the possible paths are infinite. There is seldom a rainbow at the end. There are few Mount Everests to scale ("because it is there") in research. Rather, research might be perceived more as groping in the dark. There is an urge to go on groping led by an

interest in management and education, but the tracks lie and lead everywhere.

Three basic questions have guided our search:

"What is this thing called change?"

"What are those things called organizations?"

"What can schools learn from the first two quests?"

We have caught up with somethings, but they are not answers. There are no answers; just more questions and more and more and more.

A World of Change

What the Father Dreamt Of

This dissertation attempts to describe how schools, and other organizations, can learn to deal with change.

Robert Oppenheimer, an individual vitally concerned with his environment and our ability as humans to keep pace with its rate of change, provided a keynote for our discussion of change:

This world of ours is a new world, in which the unity of knowledge, the nature of human communities, the order of society, the order of ideas, the very notions of society and culture, have changed, and will not return to what they have been in the past....

One thing that is new is the prevalence of newness, the changing scale and scope of change itself, so that the world alters as we walk in it.... (Oppenheimer, 1955)

Or perhaps Max Ways said it better:

Change has always been a part of the human condition. What is different now is the pace of change, and the prospect that it will come faster and faster, affecting

every part of life, including personal values, morality, and religions, which seem most remote from the technology. (Fabun, 1967)

Or Charles DeGaulle:

The world is undergoing a transformation to which no change that has yet occurred can be compared, either in scope or rapidity. (Fabun, 1967)

Or Norbert Wiener:

We have modified our environment so radically that we must now modify ourselves in order to exist in this environment. We can no longer live in the old one. (Wiener, 1954)

Or Warren Bennis:

We are living in an era that could be characterized as a runaway inflation of knowledge and skill, and it is this that is, perhaps, responsible for the feelings of futility, alienation, and lack of individual worth which are said to characterize our time. (Bennis and Slater, 1968)

Or Alvin Toffler:

...even the most educated people today operate on the assumption that society is relatively static. At best they attempt to plan by making simple straight-line projections of present trends. The result is unreadiness to meet the future when it arrives. In short, 'future shock.' (Toffler, 1965)

Or Santayana:

No specific hope about distant issues is ever likely to be realized. The ground shifts, the will of mankind deviates, and what the father dreamt of the children neither fulfill nor desire...." (Edman, 1936)

Or Don Fabun:

The castle stands most bravely there, but it is only sand. When the inevitable tide comes in, the waves will nibble away at the foundations, and ultimately the structure will be swept away, to become another castle on another day. Only the fun of it is left and the love that went into its making. (Fabun, 1967)

What do these words say about change? That it never stops moving; it moves faster and faster quantitatively; it is incomparable; it means we too must change; it breeds great despair; it results in future shock; it prohibits fulfillment; it makes of the great efforts of man only sandcastles washed away by its waves. These words must have consequences for the way man thinks, orders and organizes during his brief flame of life.

Maybe the power and the existence of change can be appreciated, but just what is it? What specifically is this thing called change? Two areas which have an enormous influence on the nature of organizations and institutions, particularly on schools, are knowledge and population.

Knowledge:

- Ninety per cent of all the scientists who ever lived are alive today.

- The amount of technical information available doubles every ten years.

- About 100,000 journals are published in 60 languages and the number doubles every 15 years.

- Dissertation Abstracts in 1960 filled three and one-half volumes and in 1968-69 filled 17 volumes.

- When today's babies have children, two per cent of the population may be able to produce all the food and manufactured goods required by the other 98 per cent.

- It takes a brain one-tenth of a second to process a

"bit" of information. Current machines can process 55 billion additions per second.

Population:

-Twenty-five per cent of all the people who ever lived are alive today.

-It took 350 years to increase the world's population from a half billion to one billion; 75 years to go from one billion to two billion; 13 years from three to four billion; and it will take only seven years to increase from four to five billion.

-Using the present rate of population growth in 650 years (the same jump backwards would put modern man in the Renaissance) there would be one person for each square foot of land.

-Half of all Americans will live in three metropolitan areas by 1985.

-In 1986, 35 per cent of all the people alive will be less than 15 years old.

-In the year 2000, 85 per cent of the world's population will live in Asia, Africa and Latin America. (These statements were taken from Fabun, 1967; Bennis, 1968; and observation or extrapolation of current statistics.)

The Meaning

These are the quantitative facts of change. They are realities which all of us, certainly the children we

teach, will have to live with. And of course, too, they are all lies because facts like everything else are subject to the remorseless tide of change. But their qualitative effects on organizational life are very real.

In the 1960s the author was shocked by some class responses of his seventh grade students. In a discussion of the carefree life of Tom Sawyer and Huck Finn, the kids were unanimous--a child's life was much better now because "we've got television." And when, on an aesthetic kick, the teacher commented on the unattractiveness of countryside billboards, the kids were equally adamant--"When you're driving, that's all there is to look at." The author was out of tune with a new harmony. He was not yet as accustomed to a world so intensely devoted to media. Organizations, schools, we will have to find more effective ways to adapt if we wish to contribute to and help control this change.

In an article, "The Quiet Revolution," published by the American Metal Market, an ominous note is given: "...it's as though we live in the eye of an electronic hurricane. Life seems to be as serene as ever, but the endless array of computer consoles means it's becoming entirely different."

(Fabun, 1967)

Don Fabun forecasts a world not too far in the future; a world for which we should now be preparing.

Your children may not have to take twelve years to get ready to enter college; nor have spent all that

time learning things that could be easily found in any branch library. They will have been taught processes; and how to use the little black box, and if they use it rightly, they will ask it what happened on the field of Hastings in 1066; or what the logarithm of 228 is; or how three degrees Kevin translates in Fahrenheit or Centigrade. They will be given a little black box, and the two of them will go to school together; and they may enter what is now considered college at the age of seven--which appears to be the last year that a child really can structure his neural "imprints." Perhaps they will not have to spend--as many of us have--the years after college trying to unlearn what they "learned" there. (Fabun, 1967)

In 1900 the majority of the American people made a living on the farm. In 1940 the largest single group by far were industrial workers. By 1960 the largest group were professional, managerial and technical people. (Drucker, 1969) The size of that group has been larger proportionally each year since.

Statistics show us that the average man will hold twelve jobs during his lifetime. Many of these changes are changes of industry and many of the jobs are not yet created. (Breathitt, 1969)

Clearly young people who "learn a trade" while in school may be less prepared for the job market than young people who know how to acquire knowledge and what to do with it. Education has not begun to cope with this fact of change. McLuhan writes:

The drop-out situation in our schools at present has only begun to develop. The young student today grows up in an electronically configured world. It is a world not of wheels but of circuits, not of fragments but of integral patterns. The student today lives

mythically and in depth. At school, however, he encounters a situation organized by means of classified information. The subjects are unrelated. They are visually conceived in terms of a blueprint. The student can find no possible means of involvement for himself, nor can he discover how the educational scene relates to the "mythic" world of electronically processed data and experience he takes for granted. (McLuhan, 1965)

A totally new process for learning will have to be developed, for, as McLuhan says, "a totally new environment has been created." Learning information is to schooling what swallowing water is to swimming. Both kinds of ingestion are degenerate and suicidal. They prohibit progress. We have to reshape schooling so that it deals with the contemporary realities of our world--the Kaleidoscopic swirl of cues, pressures and processes in our environment--a world, as Oppenheimer says, which truly "alters as we walk in it."

A World of Theory

The Three-Ring Circus--Organizational Theory

There is no boundary for what is called Organizational Theory. There are many theories about organizational structure, economics, psychology, sociology. There is systems theory and human relations theory and change theory. And there are many interpretations and branches of each of these. In the desire to examine how an organization looks at change many theories in many fields will be reviewed. They will

henceforth be referred to as "organizational theory"--an existing but unincorporated village.

The review of "organizational theory" is made with several assumptions in mind.

(1) Schools are organizations.

(2) Management of schools has much in common with management of other organizations.

(3) Moving from the center of the concern to the periphery (i.e., from school administration to organizational theory) gives us a more objective view of the field of action.

(4) Schools will thus benefit from an examination of theory in related areas.

Above all else, the analysis of organizational literature confirms two suspicions: (1) that schools are not using contemporary organizational ideas; and (2) that most other organizations aren't either. The problems felt in schools--lack of direction, inadequate use of research, ineffective allocation of resources, poor understanding and use of interpersonal dynamics, economics and growth--are the problems felt in 50 per cent of all organizations and the problems not even realized in another 49 per cent. It is not only heartening, it is instructive to learn that schools have no monopoly on problems. By using contemporary theory, and thereby sharpening conceptual tools and the ability to identify problems, schools, like all organizations, may benefit from the successes and failures made elsewhere.

Social psychologist Karl Weick, who is a major influence on this study, writes: "Few fields have made so much of so little as has organizational theory." (1969) Weick bases his argument not on the status of organizations but on the inadequacy of research methods. The literature of organizational theory is indeed an olla podrida of "models," leadership styles, training programs, group studies, anecdotal case studies and theories of motivation, communication, roles, interpersonal dynamics, learning, behaviorism, management, decision making, cybernetics and what have you. Little attempt is made to connect these mountains of descriptions, prescriptions and categorizations. About all one can do is to cite an author and his contribution. The consequences or antecedents of that contribution are rarely discussed.

Even two of the really major "turning points" heralded by everyone--the Hawthorne experiments and the X and Y theory of McGregor--are both extraordinarily unsophisticated pieces of "research." One is an uncontrolled, prejudged, multi-interpreted, time-and-situational-specific observation, and the other an exhortation for management to "examine its assumptions." Yet these two "findings" have given rise to a proliferation of new "theories" about group methods, management, and structure.

The net effect seems to be a confusion on the part of organizational people. They ponder what is right, which

kind of participative decision making is best and who should initiate it. "How do we communicate and trust and increase effectiveness and utilize human beings?" They wonder about these things and in wondering they don't act. If they do act, it is often in contradiction to their human nature and to the nature of others they work with. They are stymied by the complexity of organizational behavior. But it seems this confusion arises because "the term Complex Organizations conveys more information about organization theorists than about organizations." (Weick, 1969) The apparent irreverence for theory is really caused by a misunderstanding between theoretical intent and practical need. Either the theorists have not devoted enough time to interpreting the possible uses and misuses of their findings or practitioners have not spent enough time studying the situational implications of alternative theories.

A prospective traveler might consult people and writings about particular places. This information helps him to decide whether or not to go, when to go, where to go and how to go. It is a decision-making tool which is of help in explaining the traveler's situation. The consultation, however, does not provide a road map showing the traveler how to get from A to B. Too often theory is perceived as such a road map. Theoreticians have been neglectful in describing the limits of their advice. Practitioners too often become enchanted with the promise of theory without

assessing the relative consequence of their own situation. What is suggested is that the scientist should be a bit more artistic and the artisan a bit more scientific. Neither theorist nor practitioner may assume that a particular theory stands alone. In order to be correctly understood, relationships between a theory and other theories as well as appropriate practices should be spelled out.

The "search" which follows, therefore, is not only a selection of theory which seems appropriate to the aims of the dissertation, but an attempt to outline or categorize the entire theoretical base from which these selections are made. Without some idea, some agreement, of the chronology of events or influences in the development of this amorphous theoretical base, both the author and the reader would be operating in a subconscious world of images and impulses.

The Center Ring--The Bureaucratic Model

Early studies focused on administrative efficiency or as Louis Brandeis later called it "scientific management." Hugo Muensterberg's early studies in Leipzig; Max Weber's description of bureaucracy and the need for objectivity; Frederick Taylor's emphasis on working methods and the professionalism of management; Henri Fayol's study of top management; Luther Gulick's account of public administration--all asked basically how work could be organized so that it would be accomplished more efficiently. Efficiency was the

chief value; authority, rules, regulations and procedures were legitimized by the needs of society in terms of productivity.

This period had a deep and lasting effect on public schooling. The current rumblings about accountability, differentiated staffing and task analysis are the music of the twenties played on new vibes. The extent of the influences of this movement on schooling will be discussed in Chapter III.

The scientific management "school" did little with such questions as "What are our goals?" "Should they be changed?" "Who should change them?" or certainly "Are the individuals of the organization satisfied in achieving them?" Henry Ford summed up the times, "All we ask of the men is that they do the work which is set before them."

In the thirties the "human relations school" was born. The studies of the Tavistock Institute; the work at General Electric by Fritz Roethlisberger, W. J. Dickson and Elton Mayo; Kurt Lewin's concern for influence methods and groups; Chester Bernard's practical description of executive functions, Carl Rogers' early work on empathy and self-realization, Mary Parker Follett's extensive writings on process elements, power, conflict, interdependence and dynamic management, all focused on the individual in the group. Worker contribution and satisfaction were weighed. Cooperation and informal organizations and less emphasis on the rational elements of organizing for efficient production were

the reference points. Herbert Simon attempted to build a system of proofs, a science, from the writings of this period. He found rational decision making and the administrative edicts of the scientific management school untenable. He called such principles as Gulick and Urwick's POSDCORB "terms not unlike those used by a Ubangi medicine man to discuss disease." (Simon, 1957)

From this point on in time the organizational theory tree grows more diverse and uncertain. Probably the lack of time and perspective handicaps the clear identification of defined branches. A next stage is called by some the Revisionist or Transactional movement, but both its boundaries and focus are fuzzy.

For the most part little effort has been made to change the bureaucratic structure, though other theoretical changes have been made. The "classical" structure as described by Weber has these elements:

- (1) Division of labor
- (2) Hierarchy of authority
- (3) Rules for employees
- (4) Procedures for working
- (5) Impersonal relations
- (6) Promotion and selection of employees based on technical competency.

For the most part these elements go on unchallenged except, of course, in the area of human relations. Even here,

however, the difference between one school of theorists and another is more rhetorical than real. Weber himself said:

It is horrible to think that the world could one day be filled with nothing but those little cogs, little men clinging to little jobs and striving towards bigger ones...and the great question is therefore not how we can promote and hasten it, but what can we oppose to this machinery in order to keep a portion of mankind free... (Bennis, 1966)

And, even though the precepts of Henri Fayol, who majored in "top down" management, were written off by Herbert Simon as "little more than ambiguous and mutually contradictory proverbs," (Getzels, 1968) they did ask the administrator to:

(1) Bring together his chief assistants by means of conferences, at which unity of direction and focusing of effort are provided for.

(2) Not become engrossed in detail.

(3) Aim at making unity, energy, initiative and loyalty prevail among the personnel. (Getzels, 1968)

And, from the other side of the coin, it should be remembered that Douglas McGregor, a veritable saint of the human relations movement and the father of participative management, in his final note to the Antioch alumni and faculty said, "I thought that maybe I could operate so that everyone would like me, that 'good human relations' would eliminate all discord and disagreement. I couldn't have been more wrong. It took a couple of years, but I finally began to realize that a leader cannot avoid the exercise of authority

any more than he can avoid responsibility for what happens to his organization." (Selznick, 1957)

Again the perceived gap between theory and practice is revealed. Theorists tend to be excluded from the world of usefulness. The perceived isolation creates a one dimensional view of their findings and their behaviors. They become saints (or devils) divorced from worldliness. The ivory tower nurtures this perception by both its physical separation and its demand for published material. Men are not nearly so impractical and preoccupied as their theoretician-critics would have us believe.

The point made is that men and their concepts often seem more evil in retrospect. Because a minor part of their effort is out of tune, both creator and creation are damned-- "the good is oft interred with their bones." It must be remembered that Weber's "machine model" was an attempt to secure for man his freedom and his self-determination, not to squash them. Weber was reacting to the cruelty, nepotism and personal subjugation of the Industrial Revolution. It was not so much bureaucracy that was at fault. It was the one-sided interpretation by later generations that helped create dissatisfaction.

The Audience--The "Faults" of Bureaucracy

The critics of the classical organization pointed to its actual and potential weaknesses. Mason Haire lists

some of them:

(1) The engineering model insists on job rationality and tends to conceive each responsibility in its own box.

(2) The model maximizes neatness, control and orderliness.

(3) The model emphasizes error--particularly the detection and correction of error after it has happened. This value assuages the executive's "anxieties about his own inadequacy and the kind of job he is doing. He always has a check to be sure that, contrary to what he was afraid of, nothing has gone seriously wrong. It does not provide symmetrical check as to whether anything serious has gone right."

(4) The model assumes that each new job requires "an extra pair of hands." There is also very little feedback to those hands to help them assess how well they are doing.

(5) The model assumes that man is relatively homogeneous and unmodifiable.

(6) The model maintains stability of employees as a goal. Employee growth, change or turnover will upset the system.

(7) The model centralizes authority for parceling jobs and controlling error.

(8) The model assumes that individual desires are contrary to organizational goals, therefore, authority and central control help the organization to overcome the centrifugal force created by individuals in pursuit of their own goals. "This is the reason why such a large part of the executive's time is spent in running around and pasting the organization back together and tying up discordant and divergent parts..." (Haire, 1962)

One of the fascinating sidelights of this analysis is its unintended but accurate commentary on schools today. In a more abstract analysis but pivotal to our direction, Warren Bennis in a chapter entitled "Beyond Bureaucracy" examines the core problems or needs confronting organizations. Again, the parallel with the problem faced in education is unmistakable.

(1) Integration--The conflict between personal needs and organizational goals must be considered.

(2) Social influence--Many factors make one-man control obsolete, among them: the broadening product base of industry; the impact of new technology; the scope of international operation; the separation of management from ownership; the rise of trade unions; and the dissemination of general education.

(3) Collaboration--As organizations become more complex, they fragment and divide, building tribal patterns and symbolic codes, which often work to exclude others (secrets and jargon, for example) and on occasion to exploit difference for inward (and always fragile) harmony.

(4) Adaption--Today, due primarily to the growth of science, technology, and research and development activities, organizational environment of organizations is rapidly changing. It means that the government will be more involved, more of the time. It may also mean, and this is radical, that maximizing cooperation rather than competition between organizations...may become a strong possibility.

(5) Identity--Modern organizations are extremely vulnerable to an identity problem for many of the reasons discussed earlier, but chiefly because rapid growth and turbulence transform and distort the original more simplified goals--goals that may be clear and identified within one part of the organization are antithetical, or at best only vaguely understood, by other subsystems of the organization.

(6) Revitalization--Organizations must develop certain competencies:

- (a) an ability to collect and retrieve data;
- (b) an ability to learn how to learn;
- (c) an ability to be self-analytical, to use feedback;
- (d) an ability to direct one's own destiny.

These qualities are similar to what John Gardner calls "self-renewal." Without a planned mythology and explicit direction, the enterprise will not realize its potential. (Bennis, 1968)

This summary of theory about organizational structure has attempted to do several things to further our direction.

- (1) Indicate that perhaps schools and industrial

organizations have common elements.

(2) Indicate that organizational theory is really a very disorganized field and therefore in need of some perspective and desanctification in order to be of use to practitioners.

(3) Indicate that each new layer of theory is not morally "better" than the preceding one.

(4) Indicate that certain strands which have developed are appropriate to the eventual aims of this study. They are

a concern for personal relations

a concern for individual worth

a concern for responsibility and authority

a concern for consultative decision making

a concern to integrate personal and organizational goals

a concern for cooperation as well as competition

a concern for organizational identity

a concern for "self-renewal"

(5) Indicate that many practices are unhealthy for both personal and organizational growth.

Theory and Change

Theorists gradually have become preoccupied with the ability of organizations to meet change. They, and practitioners as well, were dissatisfied with total organ-

izational effort expended on "doing the work which is set before them." Although it is important to examine whether or not individuals are functioning well, it is also necessary to analyze how well the organization itself is functioning. Is it harboring internal conflict and is it refusing to deal with outside changes? These concerns caused many and varied studies branching from the mainstream of writings about organizations. What are some of the influences contributing to this redirection in theory? There are three major elements with which change theorists were concerned. They are: (1) the nature of the organization itself in terms of structure; (2) the external sources of energy; and (3) the internal tensions of leadership and values.

The Big Top--Organizational Structure

The bureaucratic structure, as noted before, in aspiring for efficiency, concentrates on maintaining itself. This concern for maintenance builds into the organization symbolic codes of language and behavior, detachment from goals, impersonal relations, conflicting parts. These characteristics work against an organization's ability to deal with a changing environment.

To clearly see the problem theorists take a systems approach. By looking at systems elsewhere, scientists can draw some conclusions about organizations. There is a rich

array of knowledge about solar systems, nervous systems, digestive systems, social systems, atomic systems, monetary systems, communication systems, early warning systems, feedback systems, record systems. Even the "Fight of the Century" was promoted by a system. There are open systems and closed systems, the extent to which they are open or closed varies.

An organization is an open system. That is, in addition to having internal subsystems it has an interactive relationship with its external suprasystem. "To some extent the organization affects its environment (the suprasystem) and is also affected by changes which occur in the suprasystem. It can resist and deny changes in the suprasystem or environment by ignoring or fighting them or by attempting to insulate itself from them." (Owens, 1970)

All open systems have certain common characteristics: they exchange with the environment, systematically labeled inputs and outputs; they maintain themselves in a steady state, called homeostasis; they are self-regulating; they have a dynamic play of subsystems operating as functional processes; they use feedback processes for self-adjustment; they display progressive segregation, the development of independent subsystems; and they have equifinality, the ability to attain the same results with differing initial conditions and processes. (Griffiths, 1964)

What theorists have learned from this use of systems language and analogy is that organizations are more than permanent, static, fragmented boxes. Indeed, they are dynamic both internally and externally, always reacting to and affecting inputs from the environment. They are not limited to a series of small actions such as Taylor's Bethlehem Steel coal shoveler, Schmidt, lifting a given amount of ore per hour. They consist of what McLuhan calls "integral patterns."

Systems theory considers how organizations can maintain equilibrium, if indeed they do desire to be in the state of equilibrium. Wiener suggests that disequilibrium is the desired state. (Wiener, 1954) Richard C. Lonsdale uses the term "dynamic equilibrium." (Lonsdale, 1964) Benne refers to re-equilibrium. (Benne, 1961) The difference is really one of viewpoint. Equilibrium theory suggests the survival of homeostasis, and process theory assumes the organization is always changing. (Moore, 1961) Both viewpoints are essential to the survival of an organization.

Robert Chin suggests that the essence of collaborative planning is contained in an intersystem model. (Chin, 1961) This model looks at an organization as consisting of many units (systems) which may or may not form a single system. It focuses attention on the connectives between the parts. It is at these interfaces where the influence of change is felt, just as all change is revealed at the

interfaces of life.

Metallurgists tell us that it is at the boundary layers--the interfaces between crystals in metals--that action takes place under force; it is these imperfections that allow us to deform and shape metals mechanically. Geologists say that the great changes in the earth take place at boundary lines where forces meet--the surf at the shore, the rift between fault blocks moving in different directions, the edge where forest meets meadow. Sculptors direct their chisels along the fault lines of blocks of stone and diamond cutters cut along flaws..... It is also true in the technological and intellectual worlds that action is most likely to accelerate along the interface between different techniques or disciplines. (Fabun, 1967)

Chin attempts to bridge the gap of the developmental model (e.g. research and development) used by practitioners and the system models (e.g. homeostatic maintenance) of scientists by introducing a change or inter-system model. This model looks at the forces producing change. It attempts to unfreeze parts which are not functioning. Change is planned, deliberate, collaboratively chosen on the basis of perceived need. The client system chooses the direction for change. The change-agent (meaning more a function than a person) facilitates that movement by helping the technical process. Thus the change agent is a part, though perhaps a temporary part, of the organization. OUTCOM will be an example of this kind of agency. Its use will demand a viewpoint other than the traditional organizational structure.

The Aerial Artists--External Influences

The effects on organizations of external change has been cataclysmic as has already been indicated in Chapter I. The incredible growth of technology, population, products; materials and methods, competition, government influence, media, unions, science, education of workers and managers, worker mobility geographically and socially, automation, marketing and advertising potentials, corporate size, consultation and expertise, research and development, and some of the less subtle pressures of business and industrial think tanks and training programs, the identity problem, the examination of bureaucratic inefficiencies and re-examination of social values, the backlash of technology and mechanization reflected in ecology and human relations; the corporate movements of internationalism, business-community involvement, communications and interdependence--all of these and many more have had profound effects on the development of theory.

The editors of Automatic Control write:

There is going to be more and more automatic control in our lives. It is the means by which we will carry on big business and big government, production, finance, communications, trade and distribution in the complex and centrally organized civilization of our times.
(Fabun, 1967)

And John Diebold writes in Saturday Review:

We are now in possession of a technology which allows us to build information systems which transcend the compartmentalized structure of business organization. (Fabun, 1967)

Even if they attempted to resist, organizations today are incapable of withstanding the implosive force of external change.

The third area of influence is perhaps the most far reaching and powerful. It is the awareness and change of values, values of both the organization and the individuals who work in those organizations. An interesting lead-in to this psycho-sociological revolution is given by Warren Bennis.

My original argument for post bureaucratic organizations in 1964 was tied mainly to the technological juggernaut.... This rise of knowledge as an economic factor brings...a growing affinity between those who make history and those who write it.

At the same time, I saw a fundamental change in the assumptions underlying managerial behavior. Out of behavioral science as well as daily experience was coming an increased awareness of man's complex and shifting needs--a replacement for the oversimplified, innocent, push-button concept of man. A new concept of power, based on collaboration and reason, was replacing the notion of power based on coercion and fear. Organizational values were shifting from the depersonalized and mechanistic values of bureaucracy toward humanistic-democratic ideals. (Bennis, 1970)

The Clowns--Personal Values

Internal influences have been powerful transformers of theory.

It strikes me as terribly necessary that men and women, whether they are students or executives, recognize their moral, ethical and emotional involvement in human institutions. The alternative is to create a population who simply do what they're told, who concern themselves only with efficiency--a society of petite Eichmanns. (Bennis, 1970)

Many forces--the fear of technology and technocracy, the strength of unions, the increasing reputation of the

war years, the shock of the depression, the spectre of international oppression--combined to foster a spirit which included more than, but was certainly characterized by, the word "humanism."

Man was meant to be (or at least he decided to be) more than a pawn of circumstance, a puppet manipulated by outside forces. The argument was presented on the grounds of social science ("...much of the individual's behavior can be explained as an active effort on his part to manipulate his environment to attain his values." Tyler, 1961), on the grounds of biology ("The human species is strong only insofar as it takes advantage of the innate adaptive, learning faculties that its physiological structure makes possible." Wiener, 1954), on the grounds of economics (Bureaucracy was the most efficient way to run a railroad, but to build a more complex system of the future we saw that more democratic forms would be necessary." Bennis, 1970), and on all of them together:

Those who would organize us according to permanent individual functions and permanent individual restrictions condemn the human race to move at much less than half-steam. They throw away nearly all our human possibilities and by limiting the modes in which we may adapt ourselves to future contingencies, they reduce our chances for a reasonably long existence on this earth. (Wiener, 1954)

Assumptions such as these set off the human relations rocket. The most influential assumption of them all as formulated by Douglas McGregor. He contrasted skeptical,

oligarchial belief in man with more optimistic, democratic belief, calling the latter Theory Y. Theory Y assumed that

- (1) Work is as natural as play.
 - (2) Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
 - (3) Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
 - (4) The average human being will seek responsibility.
 - (5) Many people are capable of solving organizational problems creatively.
 - (6) Human capabilities are only partly utilized.
- Using a strategy he calls "management by integration and self-control" McGregor shows the style of leadership growing out of these assumptions to be more appropriate for mature human beings. (McGregor, 1960)

There has been no conclusive evidence that Theory Y "management" is more effective in terms of production than Theory X "management." The natural inclinations of the leader and the type of organization and its particular situation are equally crucial. But the timing was right for McGregor's "findings," and Theory Y soon became the code word for modern management. That it seemed "right" is perhaps more important than any proof that it was right, for it presented a universally acceptable model of management which was consistent with emerging value structures.

Some experiments indicated that managers did not hold correct assumptions about the desires and needs of their workers. Data which shows us how workers perceive their own interests regarding work and motivation and how superiors perceive the workers' interests reveals substantial differences. The supervisor thinks the worker is interested

in high wages, easy work and not very interested in human relations and interesting work. The worker, when asked, however, indicates the opposite. (Likert, 1961; Myers, 1964; Herzberg, 1964)

Scientists such as Abraham Maslow showed us that man is not motivated solely by reward, either monetary or status, but that he is also influenced to do things because he enjoys doing them. Problem solving, participative methods, and work of most kinds are entered into because they can be satisfying and fun. Much of the motivation and learning theory shows that work, responsibility, and a sense of achievement are intrinsic rewards with strong effects. (Maier, 1963; Herzberg, 1968)

Thus, rethinking the natural forces and theoretical assumptions, a manager must consider their effects on methods of influence, realizing first that because of many societal changes influence works in two directions.

"...the carrot and stick" theory (satisfying man's physiological needs) does not work at all once man has reached an adequate subsistence level and is motivated primarily by higher needs. Management cannot provide a man with self-respect, or with the respect of his fellows, or with the satisfaction of needs for self-fulfillment. We can create conditions such that he is encouraged and enabled to seek such satisfactions for himself, or we can thwart him by failing to create those conditions. (McGregor, 1960)

To summarize the emerging values which have significance for organizational theory and management behavior, there are three broad areas affected.

(1) A new concept of man, based on increased knowledge of his complex and shifting needs, which replaces the oversimplified, innocent push-button or inert idea of man;

(2) A new concept of power, based on collaboration and reason, which replaces a model of power based on coercion and fear;

(3) A new concept of organizational values, based on an humanistic existential orientation which replaces the depersonalized, mechanistic value system. (Bennis, 1966)

The criticisms of classical organization (which is still the most prevalent kind of organization, particularly in education) can be presented as follows:

Classical Organization

<u>Stressed</u>	<u>Avoided</u>
fragmentation of responsibility	new social patterns
orderliness	critical feedback
avoidance of error	interdependence of elements
stabilization	technological development
concentration of authority	emerging values
organizational efficiency	motivation research
impersonal relations	individual needs and growth

This section has attempted to review some of the directions change and organizational theory have taken since the early developments of scientific management and human relations. It also has discussed some of the forces contributing to those changes. Particularly important to the development of this study are the following concepts:

(1) Systems theory has revealed some of the internal

malfunctions--the symbolic codes of behavior, impersonal relations, conflicting parts--of apparently "healthy" organizations.

(2) Systems theory has several characteristics which help us to judge how "well" an organization is internally as well as externally.

(3) Chin offers an intersystem model which stresses the importance of subsystem interfaces. In this model change is internally planned.

(4) Many social influences are creating changes in people, technological work processes, management, clientele relationship, training and other areas all of which must be "incorporated" in thriving organizations.

(5) A new concept of power based on humanistic-democratic ideals demanded that men are more than "a society of petite Eichmanns."

(6) McGregor's Theory Y provided a "reason" for managers to have faith in the competency and responsibility of those demanding collaboration.

(7) Motivational research indicated that workers were more interested in intangible rewards such as achievement and human relations than had been expected by their superordinates.

A World of Reality

This discussion has centered on trends which have questioned the purposes of organizing, the structures of organizations and the behaviors of individuals who work in and manage organizations. What are some of the changes actually suggested or made; that is, organizational changes which have allowed organizations to innovate. The world "innovate" must again not be confused with cosmetic applications. Peter Drucker says:

Innovation is a design and development of something new, as yet unknown and not in existence, which will establish a new economic configuration out of the old, known, existing elements.... It is the missing link between having a number of disconnected elements, each marginally effective, and an integrated system of great power. (Drucker, 1964)

As has been previously said, however, most organizations protect themselves against this kind of change by forming conflicting, informal, closed groups or coercive, orderly management procedures. It adopts what H. J. Leavitt calls "selective perception" by (1) seeing what promises to satisfy its needs, and (2) ignoring mildly disturbing things. (Leavitt, 1964) This behavior allows the organization to maintain its equilibrium but at the same time shuts off its feedback system.

Some theorists and practitioners have been fairly specific about (1) how to establish environments and techniques which are receptive to change, (2) how to manage in

a climate of change, and (3) how to distinguish innovative as opposed to regulatory decision making.

The Roustabouts---Building structures

Establishing environments and techniques for change are building into the organization what Chris Argyris calls "psychological success." In America psychological success is generated by involvement (Argyris, 1964). This is not so true in countries not as dedicated to democratic ideals. Almost paradoxically, involvement (for Americans particularly) creates rather than exhausts energy. It can thus be a very productive phenomenon. An analogy suggested by Argyris is the young coed, apparently "bushed" after a set of tennis, who suddenly regains her energy when asked for a dinner date that evening. There may be other forces working here, but clearly in business, routine office work does tire while participation in decisions stirs the adrenalin. This action potential is what leads some change theorists to conclude that the conflict between organizational goals and individual needs is a positive force for change.

...incongruence between the individual and the organization can provide the basis for a continued challenge which, as it is fulfilled, will tend to help man to enhance his own growth and to develop organizations that will tend to be viable and effective. (Argyris, 1964)

In addition to personal values gaining new influence on organizations, the values of science and democracy were finding a strange kinship with business. Science and

democracy were created to deal with change and both individual and collaborative expression. Science and democracy not only adapt to change, they create it. Kenneth D. Benne shows the consistency of planned change with democratic and scientific norms.

(1) The engineering of change and the meeting of pressures on a group or organization toward change must be collaborative.

(2) The engineering of change must be educational for the participants.

(3) The engineering of change must be experimental.

(4) The engineering of change must be task oriented, that is, controlled by the requirements of the problem confronted and its solution, rather than oriented to the maintenance or extension of the prestige or power of those who originate contributions.

(5) The engineering of change must be anti-individualistic, yet provide for the establishment of appropriate areas of privacy and for the development of persons as creative units of influence in our society. (Benne, 1961--underlining mine.)

Organizations have begun to translate these concepts into practice in terms of decision making techniques, functional processes, and adaptive structures.

The industrial research laboratory, a comprehensive search for invention by a team of competent scientists--which was in itself an invention of Edison--is now a regular part of the business of most firms.

Organizational development (O.D.) departments are prevalent in business. They serve as catalysts and support new projects until they are internalized in the regular structure. These departments often use consultants as a part of the program to implement improvements.

Paul C. Buchanan lists six variations on the O.D. theme in industry using such things as socio-analytic techniques, surveys, laboratory training, job rotation, problem-solving sessions, Managerial Grid laboratories, several feedback devices and consultants for varying lengths of time. He notes that successful O.D. operations involve top management, concern themselves with data collecting and problem-solving techniques, use diagnostic models, change existing power structures, shift relations from negotiation to collaboration and use an outside change agent. (Buchanan, 1967)

The aerospace industry among others uses a matrix structure to facilitate team effort. In such a structure people in functional departments--engineering, research, manufacturing, procurement, etc.--are grouped by projects and stay with their groups until the project is completed. At that time new group assignments are made.

People in these industries are not hired on the basis of their present skills but by a projection of who they might replace in the future. The perpetual change of projects and products makes many skills obsolete. Likewise, people are not paid on the basis of skill (e.g. X dollars for wiring or drafting) but on the basis of performance.

These industries encourage ideas; bonuses, pay raises and promotions are given for ideas. It is assumed that there will be a natural loss of good ideas. With several

competitors in the proposal game, four proposals will lose for every one that succeeds. This is standard procedure.

The working environment further stimulates ideas and collaboration. Individuals work in enormous rooms which have few walls. Scanning the room an observer will pick up several workers at one desk discussing a drawing, clusters elsewhere in spontaneous meetings, formal gatherings of five to fifteen individuals criticizing a proposal. Where there are doors, they are always open; no knocks or last names are used. There is immediate access to the chief executive for everyone.

Some businesses have established profit centers which are really businesses within businesses. Here the entire system from top management to part-time worker is divided in vertical slices. Each profit center competes to raise its profit profile. Team effort is thus stressed.

Many diagnostic and planning systems have been introduced in industry for the purpose of making the organization capable of using external inputs or energy to help create a healthy environment. Whether it is economic survival, government contracts or entrepreneurial creativity which are the catalysts for the past history of change methods used by business, industry, medicine and agriculture, techniques such as PPBS, Network Analysis, Pert, Simulations and Games, Computer and mathematical decision making, Planned Value Control Systems, Management Information

systems, Synectics, Delphi, Action Research and Group Dynamics are widespread in industry and business today.

Another kind of effort to create organizational environments which are adaptive to change is receiving enormous attention. It is the notion of the temporary system, using a consultant(s). The participants, those who make up the temporary system including the consultant, are a team of potential change agents who

...need opportunities to experiment with new ways of dealing effectively with intergroup and interpersonal relations, to deal openly and trustingly with one another, and to talk and think about their situation. These opportunities are educational and, if well handled, should give the participants new skills for effectiveness in the organization and therefore make the organization itself more effective. These learning opportunities should first be provided away from the job; many consultants favor some sort of "laboratory" arrangement for a time in a low-pressure setting. (Owens, 1970)

Laboratory training is the subject of volumes of organizational literature. Many theorists have much faith in laboratory training as a means for increasing organizational effectiveness. With roots in the General Electric experiments; Kurt Lewin and of course Sigmund Freud, this kind of group therapy has about as many branches and forms as there are consultants ready to collect the fee. Some experiences have been very effective, some trash, and some dysfunctional.

Interestingly it was M.I.T. that first recognized the importance of group dynamics and sensitivity training.

The focus for all human relations training is to examine human value structures, and, if the intent is to get at organizational problems, to do it through skill building in interpersonal relations. Edgar H. Schein and Warren G. Bennis in their book Personal and Organizational Change Through Group Methods: The Laboratory Approach illustrate the specifics of several types of laboratories. They assert that the chief value of this kind of temporary system "is that of inquiry, examination, diagnosis, and experimentation as opposed to action, procedure, strategy, operation and deed." (Schein and Bennis, 1967--underlining mine) Some of the many attempts made by organizations to increase collaboration, planning, and adaptability have been suggested. Building on the experiences of these attempts, Chapter V will suggest a specific "change" model with which schools can deal with these same problems.

The Ring Master--Leadership

Management behavior has a direct and inseparable relationship to establishing environments and techniques for change. Management is "working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals." (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969) Therefore, managers must behave in a way that is consistent with the environment they and the organization wish to create. Many authors believe that it is more realistic to find the right person or to change the

person (Fielder, Hersey, French, Israel and As, Korman and Likert, Blanchard). In studies of the Belgium navy, the Canadian army, and some 600 groups including the post office, police department, industry and schools, Fielder discovered that neither years on the job nor training had much effect on performance. It would therefore seem that efforts to change personality or leadership style could be wasted in terms of training time and lasting effect. Perhaps this difficulty is one reason that some laboratory training programs last four years or more. (Schein and Bennis, 1967; Bennis, 1966) McGregor writes:

There is almost no relationship between the amount of formal programming and machinery of management development and the actual achievement of the organization.... Programs and procedures do not cause management development, because it is not possible to "produce" managers the way we produce products. We can only hope to "grow" them, and growth depends less on the tools we use than on the environment which is created. (McGregor, 1960)

McGregor stresses throughout his writing that he is not advocating a change in leadership style. What he is suggesting is that commitment reflects basic assumptions about man and that the most effective leader will be one whose assumptions are consistent with those of the organization. He writes:

...one of the important lessons from research and experience...is that the attempt to train supervisors to adopt a single leadership "style" yields poorer results than encouraging them to create the essential conditions in their individual ways with due regard for their own particular situations. (McGregor, 1960)

Often the mistake is made that Theory Y suggests a laissez faire leader and Theory X an autocratic leader. The truth is that assumptions about man can be manifested in many ways. The person who holds Theory Y beliefs can exhibit style anywhere on the continuum from authoritative and task oriented to participative and considerate. Moreover it is probable that one person can manifest the entire continuum depending on the situation as did the new commanding officer played by Gregory Peck in the movie Twelve O'Clock High. This film also demonstrates that a manager who begins to take responsibility for the failures of others may be considerate and participative, but his assumptions are those of a leader who has lost faith in the ability and inclination of others to do the job.

From this discussion the following conclusions can be made about management:

- (1) Management facilitates the accomplishment of organizational goals.
- (2) Management assumptions about man must be consistent with organizational assumptions to satisfactorily accomplish goals.
- (3) It is extremely difficult to change the assumptions or style of a manager.
- (4) If the manager and the organizational environment are not in accord, the manager should be removed or the environment changed.

(5) Management style and assumptions about man are two distinct dimensions of leadership.

This survey of organizational theory and practice will conclude with a brief discussion of that part of a manager's job which is most concerned with organizational adaptability--namely, decision making.

The Death Defying Leap--Decisions that Count

Management decision making is an area in which many terms are used interchangeably but have very different meanings for different people. "Problem solving" to some people is the epitome of innovative planning; to others it stands for the routine of maintenance. When Herbert Simon says, "The effectiveness of a chief executive is inversely proportional to the number of decisions which he must personally make concerning the affairs of the organization," (Simon, 1957) he is probably stating an equilibrium theory viewpoint. He seems to be concerned with routine rather than innovation. A "solution oriented" person to some is a drone with a closed mind; to others it connotes an action individual who is not bogged down with one-at-a-time problems. In fact, most every word used--maintenance, planning, innovation, equilibrium, rationality, goal, and objective--all have this kind of double entendre. This discussion will attempt to specify the meaning intended though that meaning may be the antithesis of a definition found elsewhere.

George Odiorne defines a problem as "the difference between what we see factually to be the present situation and what we would like to see to meet our objective."

(Odiorne, 1969) He stresses the word "factually" because sometimes we don't actually "see" what is there. Putting that another way, often several individuals "see" it differently. In making decisions, therefore, the individual or group must identify the factual situation as it is and the situation desired. The problem is the difference. It is the assumption here that a job of management is to see that those problems are attended to.

Normally, however, they seem to be ignored or mishandled as an instituted process. Opportunities for "psychological success" are missed or thwarted.

Man is distinguished from all other animals in that he alone is a determiner. How strange that when it comes to the satisfactions of his special psychological growth needs he finds himself a victim of outside determinisms and helpless in affecting the way he is utilized in work. (Herzberg, 1968)

The evidence on the inefficiency of some decision making is appalling. Robert Dubin documents two findings: (1) that the time scale of decision is very long; and (2) that decisions are made politically. He cites cases where it took three and three-fourths years for a decision to install data processing equipment to be presented to the board; two years to decide on the use of a new kind of crane; and seventeen years to consider an employee transfer

policy and another year and a half for the company to make the decision final. Brown shows that the Glacier Metal Company took ten years to agonize over recommendations. This enormous amount of time between recognition of a problem and final decision, as Dubin says "...is a major dimension of decision making to which little or no attention has been made."

Dubin goes on to show that where decisions are made they are characterized by:

- (1) accommodation of disparate and conflicting interests
- (2) partial commitment of resources
- (3) open ended decisions to facilitate easy retreat. (Dubin, 1962)

Decisions have two qualities--the affect, how people feel about them, and the effect, what the outcome is. (Maier, 1963) The best outcome theoretically is the one that has considered the most relevant data and alternative solutions. Often, however, the opinions of those affected will determine the effectiveness of the decision. Thus a sound decision can be ruined by an unacceptable process. The argument that group decisions take longer is true if only the effect dimension is considered in isolation. To this time, however, must be added the amount of time it takes to convince those affected that the decision is a good one. If both the "right" decision and an acceptable decision could be made together, there would be no loss of time.

Collaborative decisions, then, have the advantage of taking the affect quality into consideration while the effect quality is being decided. The more structured that process is, the more chance that a "right" and "acceptable" decision will be made.

Drucker suggests that a team organization rather than a command organization produces innovation. It should be flexible, yet disciplined and controlled--like a "jazz combo or a surgical team." (Drucker, 1969)

Some authors make a distinction between decision making--choosing from several alternatives--and problem solving--creating alternatives. The latter is similar to what Odiorne calls "innovative objectives"--"objectives which make things happen." (Odiorne, 1969) Innovative objectives are action decisions rather than reaction decisions. They move organizations to greater growth and achievement. Both Odiorne and Drucker call this kind of decision the "breakthrough."

To understand how the breakthrough decision is made we can refer to the earlier example by Kenneth Benne of the scientific-democratic based organization. Translated into decision making or problem solving, the Benne Organization would attack problems as follows:

- (1) Problem-solving should be experimental, not stereotyped.
- (2) Problem-solving should be collaborative by

all parts of the system.

(3) Problem-solving should be task (and "reality") oriented, not "invested interest" of one part of the system.

(4) Problem-solving should be education, individually self-actualizing, and maturing.

(5) Problem-solving should rely on and maintain effective channels of communication. Benne calls this a "re-equilibration" or "growth" system which he defines as the "progressive institutionalization by a social system of a methodology of problem-solving that is optimally adaptive and adjustive for that social system." (Benne, 1961)

An ideal approach to decision making has been indicated. In terms of schools, the next chapter will discuss what the situation is now. The "problem" for the remainder of the dissertation is to find a process which will move schools from an unsatisfactory situation towards an ideal one. In terms of change that process is essential. School managers can no longer clutter their problem-solving process with accommodations, blame, pluralistic ignorance (Lippitt, 1967), arbitrariness, partial commitment, withdrawal, default and excuses. In terms of change:

It is no longer resources that limit decisions. It is the decision that makes the resources. This is the fundamental revolutionary change--perhaps the most revolutionary mankind has ever known. U Thant (Fabun, 1967)

C H A P T E R I I I

RATIONALE--SCHOOLS, THEORY AND PRACTICE

Let not thy learning exceed thy deeds. More knowledge is not the goal, but action.

Talmud

All pupils' and teachers' desk-and-seat equipment should be dusted thoroughly every morning before the opening of school. Flipping a feather duster or dust cloth across desks is not effective, and only moves the dust from one place to another. If vacuum equipment is not available, the only satisfactory method of dusting furniture is to wipe the surfaces thoroughly with a cloth or especially prepared sanitary duster. In dusting, the janitor should take straight strokes with the grain of the wood.

Principles of School Administration by
D. H. Cooke, R. H. Hanson, and
A. M. Proctor--Minneapolis, 1938

The Problem

It is a temptation to follow the circus motif of the previous chapter on organizations with a carnival motif about schools. Merry-go-rounds, crooked gaming tables, hawkers and peep-shows all stimulate provocative images about schools. But because of the utter seriousness of the subject, the temptation will be resisted. Taking a cue from Chapter II, an attempt will be made to review the problems presented in schooling literature and practice.

As the quotes from the Talmud and the 1938 Administration text indicate, the breadth of that problem

transcends the normal man's imagination.

Another way of viewing the problem is suggested by the Harris poll (Life, 1969) and the Gallup poll (1970) both of which indicate that the number one educational priority of parents is student discipline.

Not that parents are alone to blame for the confusion. Robert Glaser, the developer of the famed IPI program gives his "enlightened" opinion of the future "instructional designer."

First he would analyze representative instances of subject matter competence according to the stimulus characteristics of the content involved and the properties of the responses the student makes to the content. (Response is used here to mean broad activity ranging from memorizing to problem solving.) He would further analyze the structural characteristics of the domain, perhaps according to its conceptual hierarchies and operating rules. (Glaser, 1966)

Is this a teacher or a control panel?

Silberman dramatizes the gulf between ideal and practice,

...American principals clutter up their day with needless "administration," which is to say with chores that could easily be delegated to others, if indeed they need to be performed at all.

Elsewhere he writes,

If they (administrators and teachers) make a botch of it, and an uncomfortably large number do, it is because it simply never occurs to more than a handful to ask why they are doing what they are doing--to think seriously or deeply about the purposes or consequences of education. (Silberman, 1970)

Since the great majority of writers make no distinction between the process of education and the process of

schooling (i.e., Silberman's classic is titled Crisis in the Classroom, The Remaking of American Education), the terms will be used interchangeably.

The Schools As Organizations

The School And Its Purpose

Using Etzione's typology of organizations some confusions built into the system can readily be seen. Etzioni describes three types of organizations--coercive, utilitarian, normative--and three corresponding kinds of membership--alienative, calculative, moral. (Etzioni, 1964) Organizations with clear purposes have this kind of corresponding relationship. Churches or peace organizations are normative and their membership is a moral contract. Businesses are utilitarian and have calculative membership. Jails are coercive and have alienative membership.

Schools, however, are not so easy to describe. For students they are coercive organizations--compulsory attendance, strict rules. For teachers they are utilitarian organizations--they provide economic reward. For teachers and parents they are normative organizations--they provide for children the intrinsic benefit of learning. The confusion is apparent. Teachers use grades as a calculative measure for student involvement, while they use the moral argument that kids ought to learn just for the sake of learning, and then they provide an alienative control such

detention. Should teachers teach to earn higher salaries, to keep kids in school, or to provide hope for society? It would seem that most other organizations are not clearly in one area, but they rarely have the characteristics of all areas as do schools.

Everyone--teachers, parents, children--is confused by this tri-part characterization. Are schools for missionary work, or salaries and grades and college entrance, or to keep children in custody during the day? Teachers perceive themselves as members of the intellectual community, as professionals. But to reach the status of other professionals, they resort to union tactics thus convincing the public that they are not at all professional. And, of course, there is anxiety on their own parts as well, as they perpetuate this self-fulfilling prophecy of low esteem. No judgment of unionism or professionalism is here intended. The point made is that for teachers, students and parents the purpose of school as an organization is at best confusing.

The School and Its Students

Philip Jackson says that "school is a place where things often happen not because students want them to, but because it is time for them to occur." (Jackson, 1968) John Holt remarks that in the typical classroom children are too busy to think. "When you have acres of paper to fill up with pencil marks, you have no time to waste on the

luxury of thinking." (Holt, 1964) What do children do in school? Mostly, they work in, read (or carry) books.

Textbook learning is a means that quickly becomes an end. What page you're on is a measure of achievement.

"Over 50 per cent of the students taking college board exams reported that three-fourths of their reading in American history was done in a single text." (Silberman, 1970) Silberman writes:

...if one looks at what actually goes on in the classroom--the kinds of texts students read and the kind of homework they are assigned, as well as the nature of classroom discussion and the kinds of tests teachers give--he will discover that the great bulk of student's time is still devoted to detail, most of it trivial, much of it factually incorrect, and almost all of it unrelated to any concept, structure, cognitive strategy or indeed anything other than the lesson plan. It is rare to find anyone--teacher, principal, supervisor, or superintendent--who has asked why he is teaching what he is teaching. (Silberman, 1970)

In one of the Louisville public schools, the author watched a young teacher corpsman who had a class of second graders for 40 minutes. The students were inner city, disadvantaged black children in a program which stressed self-identity, interpersonal relations and, above all, enjoyment. The subject of the lesson was nouns and verbs. The coordinating teacher for the team sat with the author at the back of the room. After several futile efforts at abstractly defining nouns and verbs, the young teacher solicited sentences from the class. The one chosen to analyze was, "I watched a mystery on TV last night." The teacher asked the

class, "Which word is the noun?" Agonizingly he went through each random suggestion from the class, eliminating that particular word as a possibility. As "night," "TV," and "mystery" were rejected, the author began to see the direction. The choice now rested between "I" and "watched." Another attempt was made at abstraction. "One of them is the most important thing." No luck. "One is something that happens." Answer--"mystery." Eventually an abstracted voice murmured, "watched." The teacher, recognizing the opening, quickly added, "Right," circled the "watched," underlined "I," and announced, "So that's the noun."

The coordinating teacher smiled in approval. When she was asked why second grade children were "learning" parts of speech, she responded that nouns and verbs were in the guidelines which she had been using for 19 years. She then proudly displayed the many materials she had sent for and accumulated which helped children distinguish the parts of speech. When the principal was later asked about the classroom experience, she responded, "We did away with those guidelines last year. There are plenty of new materials available; all they have to do is ask." Minutes later she caught up with the author and showing him the "old" guidelines said, "See, nouns and verbs are for fourth grade students."

Many, many questions can be asked about this situation, but one very obvious one is, "Why are they doing what

they are doing?" Schooling is often a series of these 45-minute episodes which not only permit students to learn incorrect material but force them to learn to learn incorrectly. Holt writes:

In many ways, we break down children's convictions that things make sense, or their hope that things may prove to make sense. We do it, first of all, by breaking up life into arbitrary and disconnected hunks of subject matter.... Furthermore, we continually confront them with what is senseless, ambiguous, and contradictory; worse we do it without knowing that we are doing it, so that, hearing nonsense shoved at them as if it were sense, they come to feel that the source of their confusion lies not in the material but in their own stupidity." (Holt, 1964)

Schools put much stress on verbalization and yet learning theorists such as Piaget and Dewey and Bruner have shown us that the young mind works more with images and intuitions than with symbols and words. Certainly abstraction and causality are very sophisticated elements of learning. "When a preschool child says, "I buyed some bubble gum," he shows a partial knowledge of tenses though he can't explain that knowledge. He learns by hearing and saying, not by being told how to speak. Blythe Clinchy writes, "...we have often been content to give the child an algorithm--a series of steps guaranteed to take him to the right answer in the end--and then ask him to execute these steps." (Clinchy, 1968)

Learning by doing and intuitive thinking as well as more sensitive teacher-child relations are at the heart of the heralded "integrated day" schoolroom. Three assumptions

must be made to pursue this kind of learning experience. Learning is natural, risk is natural, and failure is natural.

If schools were to encourage learning how to learn, they must tolerate even encourage failure. In this way learning becomes a creative art, not a parroting one. Creativity involves risk. The creative baserunner will attempt to steal home. The creative quarterback will pass from his end zone. George S. Pullman, whom we castigated earlier, also had his creative side. Having completed his invention, the sleeping car, he was told by the railroad men that it was unacceptable because it was too high to go through tunnels and too wide to fit in railway stations. His reply was, "Change the railroads." And they did!

Learning takes risks and creativity, but as Holt says, "We destroy this capacity above all by making (children) afraid, afraid of not doing what other people want, of not pleasing, of making mistakes, of failing, of being wrong."

Schools recognize failure not with smiling shrugs, stimulating new avenues, or congratulating "nice tries"; they punish failure with low grades which incur penalties at home, with "staying after school," with lowering chances for college admission or job placement, with segregation physical or psychological to the "dummy class." As Holt and Glasser and others feel so deeply, schools create stupid kids. Equally wrong, they produce "smart kids," kids who receive favors, unequal treatment, and elitist attitudes

that widen the segregation gap.

Education has emphasized extrinsic rewards to the detriment of intrinsic reward. Ironically the hope of children learning how to learn is shut out by substituting a barrage of extrinsic pressures. Ingeniously students pursue their own intrinsic rewards since they are not obtained and acknowledged by the system. They "beat the system" and also defeat most of the good intentions of the professional staff by praising failures, honoring truancy and misbehavior, breaking rules, delighting in proving the teacher wrong, cheating, undermining class instruction, and destroying property. All of these acts of espionage provide a kind of intrinsic sense of accomplishment which counteracts the intended effort of systematic reward and punishment. It would seem that schools in addition to being confusing in an organizational sense are just as confusing as places of learning. Very little that goes on that is called learning confirms what critics, scientists, experience and children have to say about learning.

The School and Its Teachers

A teacher has a relatively high opinion of the intelligence and capacity of the average human being. He may well be aware that he is endowed with substantial capacity, but he does not perceive himself as a member of a limited elite. He sees most human beings as having real capacity

for growth and development, for the acceptance of responsibility, for creative accomplishment. He regards his students as genuine assets in helping him fulfill his own responsibilities, and he is concerned with creating the conditions which enable him to realize these assets. He does not feel that people in general are stupid, lazy, irresponsible, dishonest, or antagonistic. He is aware that there are such individuals, but he expects to encounter them only rarely.

A profile of an ideal teacher? Perhaps, but in reality it should be recognized as a direct quotation from McGregor's description of a Theory Y manager with the words "teacher" and "student" inserted. (McGregor, 1960)

Few would disagree that this description does suit the ideals most teachers hold. The school as an organization causes that teacher to do things and believe things which are not consistent with his assumptions about people.

First, schools make a fetish of fragmentation; every course, teacher, and class is stored in its separate box. Schools are guilty of what Drucker calls "product clutter." He urges that "concentration is the key to economic results" (Drucker, 1964) and in schools concentration is the key to learning results. Students and teachers can't learn or teach anything if their minds are cluttered with scores of "subjects"--present, past, and future. With all the other duties to consider, teachers are more likely to look like railroad conductors, timekeepers, and dispensing

machines than the humanistic adviser of learners connoted earlier.

Second, the great concerns for disciplines, for getting everything done, and for getting everyone in his proper place is apt to add the role of policeman to the teacher's schizophrenia. Because of the need for efficiency, moreover, discipline is redefined in "simple but rigid terms: the absence of noise and movement." (Silberman, 1970) And since the school becomes preoccupied with absolute control in order to get things done, the result is that there is neither control nor things done. Instead of being a friend to children the teacher becomes a part of the woodwork. Coleman (1961) found that when high school students were asked whose disapproval would be hardest to take, their choices were parents (54 per cent), peers (43 per cent), and teachers (3 per cent).

Third, the teacher has relatively little status as a member of the organization. "There is low role differentiation and high stereotyping--a teacher is a teacher is a teacher.... The basic role performance in the school--teaching--takes place out of sight of adult contact or supervision perhaps 90 per cent of the time." (Miles, 1967) Ends and means become confused in the emphasis on routine. "The tyranny of the lesson plan...encourages an obsession with routine for the sake of routine." (Silberman, 1970) And no matter how much principals talk about participatory

decision making

seniority in a building, dictums from "downtown," principals hesitant to relinquish any authority,, teachers hesitant to accept responsibility--all these, plus the hard, grinding, day-to-day business of operating a school militate against what nearly everyone in education says is the right way to do things. (Drake, 1968)

Brickell tells us that

teachers are, generally, powerless to innovate; they are generally, involved in programs of change only after administrators have set goals and generally have made other critical decisions about proposed changes; and teachers do, too often, feel that their involvement is mere "window dressing"--they sit on useless committees where their proposals are subject to the veto of budget-wielding, powerful administrators. (Brickell, 1961)

Due to organizational routine, it would seem that the teacher's role, like the student's, is confused, belittled, and lacking in purpose. After having looked at the ambiguity faced by the people in schools, we will look at some of the functions and procedures of the organization and then finally at management and decision-making in schools as they exist at present.

The School and Its Processes

Many authors comment on the unproductive quality of the relationship between schools and communities. The schools have poor information systems with regard to the communities. They are extremely "thin skinned" and vulnerable to attack. And to complete the perpetuating cycle they are defensive about outside interference which consequently makes their information system worse and their

vulnerability greater. Callahan returns to this theme often. He comments on the quick response schools made to increase science and math instruction after the public clamor over Sputnik. A similar flag of adoption went up following Conant's recommendations for change. Callahan suggests that although public criticism is necessary, it is "an inadequate and inappropriate basis for establishing sound educational policy." (Callahan, 1962) This characteristic of vulnerability is what Miles refers to as a "genotypical property" of the school as an open system. Dewey at the NEA proceedings in 1900 describes the usual course of a new study or program or revolutionary method for schools. It goes from clubs and individuals to school administration. Letters to the editor, editorials and finally the school board and superintendent, somewhat eager to smooth the waters, are proud to ordain it. "The victory is won, and everybody--unless it be some already overburdened and distracted teacher--congratulates everybody else that such advanced steps are taken." (Dewey, 1901)

Philip Jackson lists four custodial characteristics of school which he thinks work against its main purpose--student learning: (1) compulsory attendance, (2) long hours, (3) collective experience--the problems inherent in grouping, and (4) the overriding importance of evaluation and authority. (Jackson, 1968) One study shows that, in fact, the longer children are institutionalized, the less

autonomy they have, the less warmth they have, and the less impulse control they have. (Schuman, 1961)

Miles and Drucker indicate how paradoxical it is that schools use knowledge so inadequately. "But when it comes to knowledge bearing on the efficacy of the work processes being used by schools, it seems clear that awareness and direct use of relevant areas of knowledge (learning psychology, social psychology, sociology of the community) is limited." (Miles, 1967) This minimal utilization of knowledge may be due to lay control and a preponderance of semi-professional teachers. (Drucker, 1964)

Student grouping for efficient learning is another dubious process. Although it may facilitate some kinds of teaching (e.g., lecturing), it works against some kinds of learning (e.g., human relations). Students are organized by age and ability rather than by specialized interest or natural selection. No other organization groups its members in such a way that each is expected to contribute the same thing. Interest, differentiation and natural affinity are usually the criteria for grouping elsewhere. As has been pointed out in many studies, ability grouping tends to widen the ability gap. Thus students who are initially low in ability become progressively lower in comparison to their more favored peers. (Coleman, 1961; Hobson, 1970)

Schools place a low priority on tools and technology. While industry and business are spending larger

proportions of their budgets on this kind of capital investment, school budgets are becoming more and more dominated by personnel costs. The work-flow is processed mainly through people, the "extra pair of hands" characteristic of the classical organization. At the same time, there has been a technological press to determine behavioral objectives for what schools do. Inexperienced and untrained schoolmen have interpreted that to mean "let's objectify everything we have been doing." And, so, they are substituting one form of ritualism for another. Emanuel Mesthene, director of the Harvard Program on Technology and Society writes:

...much of what we are now doing in education may be wrong, and if technology helps us to do it very efficiently, it may lead us beyond the point where we can detect and correct our errors. (Silberman, 1970)

As Drucker says,

The problem of the school is not a matter of "standards" as schoolmasters tend to define them. It is not a matter, in other words, of "working harder" and of "doing more" of what is being done today. What we have learned in respect to all work applies to the work of the school as well. We need to work "smarter." We need to do different things and to do them differently. (Drucker, 1969)

The "extra pair of hands" syndrome, encouraged by teachers' associations and unions have created a crisis in education. The increase in employment between 1950 and 1960 was greater than the total employment in steel, copper, and aluminum. (Bennis, 1966) There are well over two million people employed in education--far in excess of any other

industry. Schools are not stressing "doing the job smarter." Locating more staff is the ready answer, because tradition says that it should be done by people and that 20 students learn better than 30. Hiring practices emphasize financial reward, not the quality of the school or the growth potential or job satisfaction of the individual. In fact, the typical recruitment brochure seems almost to say "in spite of the schools, you can have a good time." Often distances to "nearby" (e.g., New York, 2½ hours) cultural centers, or entertainment (e.g., free season tickets for skiing) are offered as inducements to come and tolerate the educational program. Again the practice militates against what it is intended for--attraction of superior and committed people.

Financing is another element that confuses the mission of schools. Decisions are usually made on the basis of cost--an input measure--rather than performance--an output measure. The promising concepts of differentiated staffing and accountability are being interpreted by many boards and superintendents as methods of cutting costs. Budgets are made up on the basis of traditional programs; budget cuts are made across-the-board.

One can reasonably conclude that local school boards and their staffs must assign priorities to school objectives before allocating the available financial resources to specific categories within the school budget. (Nephew, 1969)

Drucker states:

This across-the-board cut is at best ineffectual; at worst, it is apt to cripple the important, result-producing efforts which usually get less money than they need to begin with. (1964)

Economist Theodore W. Schultz lists six likely sources of inefficiency in regard to the expenditure of time and money in schools:

(1) We have not economized on student time put into education.

(2) Little has been done in schools to substitute material inputs for human efforts.

(3) We have not attended to changing demands of society for various human capabilities.

(4) Good teachers have been lost in the competition for talent because of poor teaching wages (and utilization).

(5) New techniques have not been designed.

(6) We are not investing enough money in education even though it has been shown that we make a return of between 9 and 17 per cent on our investment per year. (Tyler, 1961)

There is little in the schools in the way of staff and product development. "Out of 30,000 school districts, there may be 100 or so (usually large city systems) which have a research function systematically built in." (Miles, 1967) Even these often dole out the money to consultants for short visits and to teachers for summer work and education courses. In-service training often resembles classroom instruction. Schools depend on administrators as "teachers" or they call in "outside experts." Teachers have lectures, assigned readings, or enroll in classes to get "up to date." This method of training leads to (1) learner dependency, (2) extrinsic rather than intrinsic reward systems, (3) a wish to "beat" or scorn the system,

(4) reenforcement of the hierarchy and line of authority, and (5) reduction of interaction and integration.

All of these school processes, then, have limited effectiveness because they are at cross purposes with the goals of education. Vulnerability to public pressures, unplanned utilization of information, custodial care devices, student grouping procedures, misdirected use of technology, increasing dependency on human effort, crisis recruitment, misallocation of finances and low cost effectiveness, unimaginative training are school procedures which decrease the possibility of educators to set priorities, eliminate waste, and consistently see a way through to the attainment of a desired goal. Silberman (1970) gives an example.

Certainly administrative procedures like automatic promotion, homogeneous grouping, racial segregation, or selective admission to higher education affect "citizenship education" more profoundly than does the social studies curriculum. And children are taught a host of lessons about values, ethics, morality, character, and conduct every day of the week, less by the content of the curriculum than by the way schools are organized, the ways teachers and parents behave, the way they talk to children and to each other, the kinds of behavior they approve or reward and the kinds they disapprove or punish. These lessons are far more powerful than the verbalizations that accompany them and that they frequently controvert.

The author as an assistant principal had the opportunity to hear many complaints from teachers and students. One day an outraged teacher stormed into the office with what she explained was a "punishment essay" given in study hall written by a boy the principals knew only too well.

It explains itself.

"Courtesy in Study Halls"

You should always be courteous in study halls because it is unfair to the "goody-goody" kids who are soft and never fool around or have any fun at all.

And its supposedly unfair to the teachers who just walk around and talk to each other. The teachers that refuse simple requests for kids with a "bad reputation." Yet grant these requests for the "goody-goody kids" without thinking twice. If they here a noise, before you know it there putting entire blame on some of those "bad" kids. If a "goody-goody" kid is fooling around the teacher will call his name softly. But if a teacher sees a "bad" kid she will screech his name at the top of her lungs and without further adoo send him directly to the office. If these teachers who are "ladies", and I use the term loosely, pick on both the goody-goody and the bad kids she shouldn't "pick on" either.

Another complaint of mine is the lack of consistency of the teacher one day she'll just yell at you the next she will give you detention.

If the teachers cease nonconsistency & unfairness you can be sure the kids will reform.

Drucker writes (1969,

Learning and teaching are going to be more deeply affected by the new availability of information than any other area of human life. There is great need for a new approach, new methods and new tools in teaching, man's oldest and most reactionary craft. There is a great need for a rigid increase in the productivity of learning. There is, above all, great needs for methods that will make the teacher effective and multiply his or her efforts and competence.

And Miles concludes (1967),

It seems that many aspects of schools as organizations, and the value orientations of their inhabitants, are founded on history and constitute what feel like genotypical properties. These are important to the schools; they help maintain continuity and balance in the face of the school's ambiguous mission and its vulnerability to external pressures from parents and others. Therefore, it is likely that, while rapid shifts in specific school practices are relatively more possible, changes touching on the central core of assumptions and structures will be far more difficult to achieve.

The School and Its Managers

If schools organizationally are not functioning in a way that facilitates their purposes, shouldn't those in charge of its operation do something about it? They should, and they can't. It is as simple as that. In order to effect the kinds of changes that will re-direct the "genotypical properties" of schooling, a massive cooperative effort is needed from many quarters. Well, can't school administrators initiate that kind of action? Yes, they can, but the job is not easy. This final section of the School As An Organization will attempt to tell why it is not easy.

The overwhelming obstacle to doing something different--making sure the operation keeps going as it is and making sure it doesn't get worse--is common to all organizations. Administrators in schools--particularly superintendents--are usually perceived as responsible for carrying out the day-by-day operation of the school according to policy determined by the school board. To this extent they are viewed as stabilizing influences, helping people to achieve the goals of the organization.

Leaders, on the other hand, initiate changes. They are disruptive forces, often purposively sabotaging the maintenance or administrative function. This may be overstated, but the intent is to underline the role conflict created if the administrator is also expected to be the "change agent." With a preponderance of administrative details

facing him each day, it is questionable whether "innovative" procedures introduced by an administrator would really be designed to radically alter existing and well ingrained habits. Herbert Thelan writes,

The operation of the educational enterprise has encountered what only can be thought of as a very large number of increasingly serious obstacles, and the new devices sustain the forlorn hope of protecting and maintaining, rather than changing, the old orthodoxy in the face of the most important revolution in the history of mankind. (Owens, 1970)

And Miles adds,

In many school systems, the main stance of the chief administrator in the face of system vulnerability and varying demands from the environment is a withdrawing, passive one.... The tacit view of the school is that it has little power to initiate, develop, grow, push things, or be disagreeable to anyone or anything. (Miles, 1967)

Administrators are generally perceived as maintaining the status quo. They have traditionally borne the burden of organizational concerns and maintenance problems--discipline and control, subject matter (well defined, non-controversial, answerable), knowledge (teacher-fed traditional material which is easily transferred from one head to another), expenditures, school plant, school dress, class distinction (grouping and grades), traffic, attendance, time, morals, staff attitudes and behaviors.

In addition to these concerns there are a number of external considerations which the administrator must tolerate. Teachers must be certified. Students must take national examinations and college entrance tests. Students

and teachers are mobile and must therefore "be prepared" for new schools. Books and materials are produced by vendors who pattern them to fit existing school practices.

Administrative vulnerability to public pressures was never more obvious and powerful than it was between 1910 and 1930. There are many ominous parallels between the situation today and the period described by Raymond Callahan in his fascinating history, Education And The Cult of Efficiency. Six factors influenced a new direction in education at that time.

(1) A decade of concern for reform stimulated by muckraking journalists.

(2) Taylor's "scientific management."

(3) The prestige of American businessmen--Rockefeller, Carnegie, Morgan.

(4) An emphasis on materialism evidenced in school materials such as the McGuffey Readers.

(5) The birth of a new field called "school administration."

(6) A rising cost of living.

The movement emphasized the many unfavorable comparisons between the productivity of schools and the "scientific management" of industry. It insisted that education could be improved with the adoption of efficient management techniques. In commenting on industrial procedures and education, George H. Martin, secretary of the State Board of

Education in Massachusetts, said in the 1905 NEA annual meeting, "In the comparison, educational processes seem unscientific, crude, and wasteful." School boards (and the American people) demanded efficiency, meaning "lower costs." Cost-cutting administrative techniques became the order of the day and many of those techniques still abound today.

Callahan sums up the period writing, it is clear that the essence of the tragedy was in adopting values and practices indiscriminately and applying them with little or no consideration of educational values or purposes. It was not that some of the ideas from the business world might not have been used to advantage of educational administration, but that the wholesale adoption of the basic values, as well as the techniques of the business-industrial world, was a serious mistake in an institution whose primary purpose was the education of children. (Callahan, 1962)

This is fair warning to anyone writing today about using business-industrial management techniques to initiate commitment to change in education! Hopefully an emphasis on change, not efficiency, does make a difference. It doesn't seem necessary to cite the current pressures for accountability and fewer teachers and less expensive equipment as strikingly similar to the pressures felt by administrators prior to the Depressions.

Another difficulty for today's administrator is the perception the general public and the staff have of his duties. That is, there are many different role expectations. Miles observes that the superintendent of schools

must work capably with the board; and be an educational statesman in the community, the state, and the nation; and attract funds from federal and state sources; and be an instructional leader within the system--all with only seven days and nights a week available. (Miles, 1967)

One of the problems facing school management today is that it has gradually found itself in charge of multi-million dollar businesses. Administrators entirely capable of directing and controlling the education of a few hundred children in a community are naturally unequipped to deal instead with hundreds of teachers and thousands of students. School administrators are not accustomed to the problems and language of big organizations. They procrastinate, drift, become inactive. They have no idea how to use the organization. As Peter Drucker (1969) says, people today will have to "learn organization" the way their forefathers "learned farming." Superintendents and principals come directly from the teaching ranks where there is certainly no exposure to "organization"--that is budgeting, capital outlay, scheduling, community leadership, public relations and personnel.

The teacher moving up to administration takes on the burden of human relations. One study shows that that consideration jumps from 20 per cent in his previous job to 80 per cent as an administrator. (Bellows, Gibson, and Odiorne, 1962.) The problem is even intensified in terms of pressure. Failure to develop interpersonal relations can

be very costly in attempts to innovate. What is essentially a sound program design can be scuttled by emotional reaction from the staff. Carl R. Steinhoff found that many principals are timid, submissive, and have "a personal disposition to support an administrative style which minimizes the likelihood of conflict or change." (Steinhoff, 1965)

Robert Sinclair summarizes this difficulty.

Instead of risking failure the principal is likely to assume anonymity, and a behavior that communicates resignation and noncommitment.

A principal, foreseeing that his actions will result in criticism, may hesitate to make decisions that have far reaching implications. To avoid criticism the principal may move from problem to problem without reaching solutions, and again the result is a behavior of noncommitment.

Sometimes principals try to discard all symbols of status and authority, playing up their likeability.... Teachers...gradually come to harbor feelings of resentment and anger toward him because his behavior inadvertently supplies a negative picture of what they perceive the leadership role should be. (Sinclair, 1968)

Summary Notes On School Change

C. P. Snow once said, "I used to think that it would be about as hard to change, say, the Oxford and Cambridge scholarship examination as to conduct a major revolution. I now believe I was overoptimistic."

Educators and others have found it difficult to pinpoint the reluctance of schools to accept change. In 1935 Paul Mort contended that money was the problem. He felt increasing the per-pupil expenditure in a school system would automatically (though not instantly) raise the quality

of its educational program. This concept of a direct ratio between money spent and acceptance of change is still supported by many.

In the last decade educators have suggested that it is not the amount of money spent but the way that money is spent which counts. They argue that the ratio of money spent to change is curvilinear and that there is a point of diminishing returns. The apparent success of curriculum programs such as PSSC and SMSG is used as evidence that new strategies for expenditure have profound effect on the rate of change acceptance.

Recently much of the blame for rigidity has been placed on resistant cultures. The point is made that what is accepted in one culture is rejected by another.

Currently much effort is being spent on defining healthy organizations. Organizational climate--particularly the decision making process--is analyzed in the belief that knowing how people "feel" about things that are going on will help everyone to support change attempts.

Change in schools has been difficult and slow. Mort's studies in the thirties showed it took a half century to develop a new way of meeting a need and another half century for diffusion of the adaptation. (Mort, 1964) More recent studies have shown the rate of acceptance to be accelerating considerably, but the lag is still significant. "Whereas the lag in utilization of scientific knowledge in

fields such as agriculture or aeronautics averages a few years, in the field of education it appears to be a matter of decades." (Jung, Fox, and Lippitt, 1967)

Daniel Griffiths states some revealing propositions about change:

- (1) The major impetus for change is from outside the system.
- (2) Administrators appointed from outside of the system have more success or more interest in introducing change.
- (3) The number of innovations is inversely proportional to the tenure of the chief administrator.
- (4) The more hierarchial the structure, the less change.
- (5) Change occurs from the top down. (Griffiths, 1964)

These symptoms seem to point to a strong staff and public resistance to change unless someone who has just arrived from the outside jams it down their throats.

Henry M. Brickell's studies almost confirm that statement. He adds a few other observations about the nature of change and resistance to it.

(1) Schools do not distinguish between the phases of change--design, evaluation and dissemination--whereas medicine, agriculture, and industry have separate agencies for the different functions. Schools are organized on the assumption that all phases can occur simultaneously in a single setting such as the university laboratory school.

(2) The language used almost universally in discussing administration--"shared decision-making," "the team approach," etc., is not descriptive of the actual process. More often than not these euphemisms are intentional disguises.

(3) Suspicion about the worth of innovations in other schools, and even about the sincerity of other innovations, is a widespread and severe inhibitor of change. Many visits are actually undertaken for the

purpose of discovering that the new program in a neighboring school is no better--and perchance a trifle worse--than what the home school is already doing. (Brickell, 1964)

To culminate this grim view of the prospects of educational innovation, a shorthanded summary of Mathew Miles' chapter, "Some Generalizations" in his book, Innovation in Education, is presented. Here are 41 obstacles to school innovation:

- (1) lack of change agents
- (2) absence of valid research findings
- (3) lack of economic incentive
- (4) existing fake myths such as
 - (a) schools are locally controlled
 - (b) teachers are autonomous professionals
 - (c) teaching cannot be effectively measured or specified
- (5) Regents or national examinations
- (6) vulnerability to outside influence
- (7) low use of technology to promote change
- (8) lay control
- (9) lack of conceptualization and empirical measurement
- (10) cost in money, time or energy
- (11) lack of soft hardware
- (12) consumable materials are more attractive than using research findings
- (13) training or competency inadequacy
- (14) necessary training for implementation
- (15) threat to existing practices and people
- (16) incongruence with other programs
- (17) existing values
- (18) continued successful operation of existing system
- (19) commercial profit motive encourages materials to stress novelty rather than change
- (20) old structures
- (21) traditional administrators
- (22) long tenure of some individuals produces arteriosclerosis
- (23) adverse opinion of innovations in other systems
- (24) jealousy or suspicion with innovator
- (25) conservatism
- (26) other external dissatisfaction
- (27) fear of "boat rocking"--existing apathy or opposition
- (28) lack of commitment (matching funds)
- (29) lack of enriched autonomous environment for design

- (30) inadequate awareness and information campaign
- (31) subjective premature "evaluations" based on perceived merits of the innovation
- (32) demand for evaluation
- (33) isolation of innovating group creates external hostility
- (34) personal anxiety created by new expected behavior patterns (or assumed patterns)
- (35) high frustration within innovative group
- (36) unrealistic goal setting
- (37) "recapture" of conservative members of innovative group by external system
- (38) inadequate process skills
- (39) excessive time limits
- (40) no clear output criteria
- (41) no remedial support if innovation fails

In summarizing, it is interesting to return to the characteristics of an open system keeping in mind that an open system organization is functioning well if it has a positive correlation to these characteristics.

(1) Does a school exchange matter and information with the environment?

Schools show disturbance and defensiveness about public intrusion. Channels of communication are often difficult to open. There is little exchange at the accomplishment level. Ineffective measurements and a primitive reporting system leave outsiders baffled and insiders unfilled. There is little use of community energy in the schools and almost no use of school energy in the community. Use of existing knowledge about schooling and learning is minimal.

(2) Does the school maintain itself in a steady state?

Both yes and no. The school administrator endeavors to maintain a tight and steady ship, but it would appear that he spends more time in the engine room than he does at the helm. In the long run the organization is routinely steady, but a stop action picture would show bulges and dents, often extreme distortions of shape, caused by the crises of internal and external pressures.

(3) Is the school self-regulating?

Schools are other-regulated. They are regulated by vulnerability to the public, by state and national constraints, by a system of unexplained rituals and assumptions, and by procrastination.

(4) Do schools display equifinality?

Schools are notorious for prescribing "one-way" solutions. Methods of hall traffic, entering auditoriums, doing assignments, scheduling, almost everything that goes on is the one and only way to do something. In fact, there is so much attention paid to the means of learning and behavior that the end often gets lost, as in the case of "getting through" the history text or credentialing teachers or preparing budgets.

(5) Is there a dynamic interplay of the school subsystems?

Disciplines are isolated; teachers and principals are "we and them"; students are segregated first by age and then by ability; parents and students are separated;

departments are "for members only"; schools are autonomous. They are commonly called "ivory towers."

(6) Do schools use feedback processes for self-adjustment?

No one asks, "What are we doing?" There is little use of research. Teachers do not attend parent-teacher meetings. Teacher room gossip is the prevailing source of "feedback." Staff meetings are often lectures, not discussions. They are usually called to define a new procedure or rule or dictum from the central office, the board or the state. Negotiation, not information, is the primary basis for exchange. When students talk or complain, they are penalized.

(7) Do schools display progressive segregation?

Yes, but in a negative sense. There is no differentiation on the basis of expertise or function. Each school, each department, each teacher, each student is expected to do essentially the same thing. Segregation is based on social difference, administrative convenience, and the hope of producing conformity and convergent thinking. Grouping is homogeneous--in IQ, age, family background, deformity, sex, department and, in the case of private schools, wealth.

Some Notes of Hope

The difficulties revealed are extremely depressing. Is there hope? The remainder of this dissertation will

address that question. But before this chapter is closed, a short optimistic effort to address the problems might be welcome. Four sources--Silberman, Drucker, Miles, and the booklet The Principal and the Challenge of Change--will be cited.

Silberman looks forward to more humanistic environments for school children; in short, he looks forward to education--"the experiment which has never been tried." He characterizes what goes on as mindlessness, and although he contradicts John Holt, he seems to agree with him on one thing--we must find ways to stop putting obstacles in the path of learning. Silberman sees a ray of hope in the British primary system where children are encouraged to pursue their own interests at their own pace. He sees this system of education as one that is consistent with

a substantial body of theory about the nature of children and the ways in which they grow and learn, as well as about the nature of knowledge, the process of instruction, and the aims of education.

But he warns:

It would be tragic in any case, if the desire to adopt The Latest Thing in Education were to lead to hasty introduction of the English forms without an understanding of their substance or goals and without the careful preparation that is essential. (Silberman, 1970)

Drucker, more management oriented, wants to determine priorities and to eliminate "product clutter." He argues against the induction of more teachers. He says, "It ought to be possible to do the job with far fewer," but it

is not costs he is intending to cut, for he goes on to say, "We have to make the teacher more productive, have to multiply his or her impact, have to increase greatly the harvest from his or her skill, knowledge, dedication and effort."

"It is not that we cannot afford the high costs of education"; Drucker says, "we cannot afford its low productivity."

(Drucker, 1969)

Miles concentrates on the organizational functions, the subsystems of the school, and suggests four major change goals for school systems. They are (1) increased internal interdependence and collaboration; (2) added adaption mechanisms and skills; (3) stronger data-based inquiring stances toward change; and (4) continuing commitment to organizational and personal growth and development.

He then lists 13 mechanisms which can be used to reach these goals. They are, of course, suggestive not prescriptive:

- (1) Methods for goal clarification.
- (2) Goal-movement assessment tools.
- (3) Improved mechanisms for feedback from children.
- (4) Easy-to-use adult behavioral measures.
- (5) Free space for personal and organizational development.
- (6) Change-managing units.
- (7) Interagency linking mechanisms.
- (8) Personnel development units and programs.
- (9) Role-supports for the superintendent.
- (10) Conflict management education
- (11) Inter-role and intergroups confrontation mechanisms.
- (12) Environmental scanning roles.
- (13) Board development mechanisms. (Miles, 1967)

Novotney is concerned with leadership and contends

that effective change teams with differentiated roles is the most effective way to accomplish tasks. He stresses using a variety of talents and a high concern for human relations to produce cooperative effort. Group interaction and group cohesion mechanisms are paramount.

They are at a maximum when group members are led to perceive the achievement of their own goals as inter-related with the achievement of others' goals in a given situation. Regardless of how difficult a change may appear or how onerous the tasks necessary to achieve it, if the individuals in the change team take their strength from each other and feel free to exchange or deal with common problems in an atmosphere of acceptance, the possibility of successful change will be increased.

In working with the staff the administrators will emphasize interplay, support, and communication. (Novotney, 1968)

Kenneth A. Tye suggests strategies to create dis-equilibrium. Teachers and principals should

(1) Become aware--every member has responsibility to investigate new processes and ideas.

(2) Enter into dialogue--open channels to produce a general climate of freedom and interpersonal trust.

(3) Diagnose needs and problems--clarify problems before identifying solutions, respond to those needs and problems.

(4) Examine goals--not sufficient to have clearly stated set of goals. Are they appropriate?

(5) Set priorities--set criteria by which rational decisions about priorities can be made.

(6) Decide--those who are involved in the consequences of decisions should be involved in making decisions.

(7) Plan and Organize--anticipate comprehensive effects of change on system and individuals.

The creation of temporary systems which will cause people within the system to look outward for new ideas, or the use of action research to enable operational pursuit of a problem are functional mechanisms to bring disequilibrium.

As a social institution a school

tends to do what it has been established to do and to hold itself stable, resisting attempts at restructuring. Maintenance of the status quo is not always apparent in overt denial of changes. Often, it takes the form of minimum levels of cooperation, finding excuses, shifting blame, and dependence upon others for decision-making. If the objective is to effect a change in an organization, this must be achieved by upsetting equilibrium, or creating imbalances in the organization. (Tye, 1968)

These theorists provide a platform on which to stand. Their suggestions are not blueprints, but they are alternative ideas to be considered, rejected, or adapted. Perhaps their greatest importance is to give a reason for change and a hope for change--for there is hope.

Schools can be humane and still educate well. They can be genuinely concerned with gaiety and joy and individual growth and fulfillment without sacrificing concern for intellectual discipline and development. They can be simultaneously child-centered and subject- or knowledge-centered. They can stress esthetic and moral education without weakening the three R's. They can do all these things if--but only if--their structure, content, and objectives are transformed. (Silberman, 1970)

C H A P T E R I V

RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

This chapter will attempt to categorize findings in the research on organizations and schools. Hopefully, this crystalization will provide an anticipatory base for the procedures about to be discussed in future chapters.

The classical organization was formulated because of the malpractices of the Industrial Revolution. But to avoid some of the main strands of influence--coercion, fear, and favoritism--the bureaucratic model also developed its own inadequacies and inefficiencies. Critics of the model objected to its

- (1) Stress on rationality and efficiency
- (2) Rules and procedures
- (3) Orderliness
- (4) Intolerance of error
- (5) Impersonal relations
- (6) Division of labor, fragmentation and independent parts
- (7) Homogeneous view of man
- (8) Authority
- (9) Rejection of individual goals
- (10) Lack of identity
- (11) Misuse of data

(12) Inability to deal with change

This dissertation uses these criticisms to further its cause although it is recognized that each element listed must be weighed in regard to its contribution as a stabilizing and unifying force as well as an obstacle to change and humanism.

From the springboard of characteristics of the classical organization and the subsequent human relations reaction to it, many concepts and practices have been devised. Those which contribute to the development of this study--Collective Activism--follow:

- (1) mechanisms to enhance personal relations
- (2) acceptance and promotion of individual worth
- (3) decentralization but specific identification of responsibility and authority
- (4) collaborative decision making
- (5) integration of personal and organizational goals
- (6) equilibrium of cooperation and competition
- (7) establishment of organizational identity
- (8) consideration of self-renewal
- (9) analysis of subsystems and functions
- (10) operationalizing the characteristics of systems theory
- (11) the planning of change
- (12) focusing on the forces of change working

at interfaces

- (13) the recognition and use of changing social influences
- (14) use of democratic ideals
- (15) faith in competency and responsibility of workers
- (16) using achievement and decision making as rewards
- (17) establishing new economic configurations of old elements
- (18) combating selective perception and closed groups
- (19) building in psychological success for participants
- (20) translating action potential into creative energy
- (21) mechanisms to further the education of participants
- (22) fostering experimentation and risk
- (23) using research
- (24) using consultants and top management
- (25) mixing functional and project orientation
- (26) emphasizing performance rather than skill
- (27) encouragement of creative ideas
- (28) promoting serendipity
- (29) establishing profit centers

- (30) mechanisms to meet future commitments
- (31) using temporary systems
- (32) retreat small group training session characteristics
- (33) emphasizing situational leadership
- (34) de-emphasizing management training
- (35) emphasizing problem rather than solution orientation
- (36) shortening the time taken to reach decisions
- (37) eliminating partial commitment
- (38) considering the affect quality of problem solving
- (39) using flexible team approaches
- (40) seeking innovative (action) objectives

Chapter III indicated a difference between schooling ideals and current school practices.

Attempts to bridge that gap ordinarily have had two failings. Either they have been conceptual blueprints prefaced by a long list of needs and objectives or they have been packaged programs which are practically teacher proof. In the first case what works well on paper is shipwrecked on the reefs of practice, and in the second case what works well on paper works well on paper. That is, the new programs work fairly well, but nothing essential is changed. A growing ground of experience and theory is demonstrating that a predetermined attempt to change

organizations makes little difference.

It is inefficient. We simply do not know how to preplan or prepackage change. Educational history, particularly modern school history, is filled with attempts to initiate programs emphasizing human relations, aesthetics, individualizing learning, using the community and so on. Federal, state, foundation, and local attempts to support these efforts have produced little of national significance, and in the meantime waste and cost, both financial and psychological, have been high.

It is inappropriate. At this point in time it is not new programs that are needed. Instead, what is needed are new mechanisms and processes to find out what is needed. It is poor use of judgment to move from one set of half-baked programs or goals, which we may or may not be accomplishing, to another set of programs or goals, which we may or may not be able to accomplish. If the Caterpillar Tractor Company is in trouble, it is not asked to stop manufacturing heavy equipment and start making sweetbreads. What schools must do is find out

- (1) What they are doing well
- (2) What they are doing for the sake of doing
- (3) What they are doing poorly

Managers must concentrate their resources on the former, eliminate the latter, and move the "in-betweens" one way or the other. And, moreover, if it turns out that teaching

multiplication tables is what they do well, then perhaps that's where they should put their money, for in analyzing why they are doing it well, they will reveal a true picture of the values as well as the strengths of the educational community.

It is not feasible. Basic attitudes and mechanisms will not let it happen. Schools have what Miles calls "genotypical properties"--processes which are involved with goal specification, task accomplishment, internal integration, and adaptability. Such things as the organization of students in groups, low-teacher-performance visibility, little role differentiation, and vulnerability to outside pressures are like essential and sacrosanct internal organs. They make up the organic core of schools as an organization, and predesigned, programmed change will be permitted up to the point where that core is in danger of being exposed.

Organizational theory that espouses a systematic, impersonal approach to change--goals, alternatives, solutions, testing, revising, diffusion, implementation--probably, as McGregor says, "serves certain deep emotional needs of management" but is in no way "a realistic formula for action." This lack of faith in what many would call the logical sequence of change may indicate that what is really needed is some kind of emotional reality--laboratory training--which will improve people's sensitivity, interpersonal skills, and understanding. But here too theorists

are playing with external issues (important as they are to human growth) which have no direct bearing on the organic properties and pathologies of the organization. Rather than give the depressed patient antidepressants and therapy, he should be given a will to live. This is done by giving him a new lease on life. Life, not symptoms, becomes the issue.

Daryl J. Bem (1967) found in experiments dealing with "cognitive enhancement" and the re-evaluation of alternatives following choice--that attitudes and beliefs do not precede behavior and may actually cause it. This evidence as corroborated in many studies by Vroom, Farris, Locke, Festinger, Weick, Brehm, Carlsmith, Osgood, Breer, Cohen and Scott. If action naturally precedes attitude, then it doesn't seem worthwhile to pour a lot of energy into the belief that organizational attitudes or beliefs can be changed with training or goal setting or other cognitive approaches. Without action preceding or accompanying it, training or planning is vacuous.

And so the choice is for individuals in organizations to change structure, process and function, confident that cognitive mapping and attitudes will follow. What are some of the findings in organizational theory which led to the consideration of changing structure to help structure change?

(1) Assumptions About Theory

- (a) Change is a reality and it is changing--"the world alters as we walk in it."

- (b) We must live with change and change it.
- (c) Schools as organizations can benefit from theory about organizations and change.
- (d) Theory in its present state tends to confuse rather than help people in organizations.
- (e) Judging organizational types and theoretical methods as good and bad or effective and inhumane is more a compulsion for the satisfaction of theorists than a reflection of organizational practice.

(2) Assumptions About Organization Characteristics

- (a) Classical organizations stress rationality, control, supervision, fragmentation, homogeneity, stability, central authority, impersonality, efficiency.
- (b) They do not stress integration, social influence, collaboration, adaptation, identity, revitalization.
- (c) Open organizations are characterized by exchange with the environment, homeostasis, self-regulation, internal interdependence, information utilization, differentiation, and equifinality.
- (d) Open systems can maintain themselves despite an entropic environment.
- (e) Open systems consist of many units and the force of change acts at the interfaces between those units.

(3) Assumptions About Values for Contemporary Man

- (a) Man is not a machine to be controlled by coercion and

fear.

(b) Man's membership in organizations is both ethical and economical.

(c) Man is naturally responsive, responsible, and industrious.

(d) Man is motivated by achievement and self-esteem.

(e) Man is influenced to act in a collaborative environment.

(4) Assumptions About Values for Contemporary Organizations

(a) Communication is full and free regardless of rank and power.

(b) Decisions are made by consensus rather than coercion or compromise.

(c) Emotional expression is valued with task accomplishment.

(d) Influence is based on competence, knowledge and collaboration.

(e) Individual and organizational conflict is recognized and attended to.

(5) Assumptions About Planned Change

(a) Planned change is collaborative

(b) Planned change is educational

(c) Planned change is experimental

(d) Planned change is task oriented

(e) Planned change creates units of influence

(6) Assumptions About Contemporary Management

- (a) Management works with individuals to accomplish goals.
 - (b) Changing people through training has proven to be neither feasible nor productive.
 - (c) It is easier to alter situations than it is to change leadership, unless a new leader is the change.
 - (d) Involving others in management produces energy in terms of their "psychological success."
 - (e) Conflicts between organizations and individuals are potential sources of energy and creativity.
- (7) Assumptions About Decision Making
- (a) Solving problems first demands clear identification of what those problems are.
 - (b) Decisions normally take too long.
 - (c) Decisions often lack full commitment, consensus or adequate resources for a fair trial.
 - (d) Innovative decisions create a new economic configuration of the old, existing organizational elements.
 - (e) Both the quality dimension and the acceptance dimension of decisions must be considered.

It is further assumed that

...every age develops an organizational form appropriate to its genius, and...the prevailing form, known by sociologists as bureaucracy and by many businessmen as "damn bureaucracy" is out of joint with contemporary realities. (Bennis, 1968)

There is no "scientific" way to set objectives for an organization. They are rightly value judgments.... The decision about what to abandon is by far the most

important and the most neglected. (Drucker, 1969)

Organizations must be so structured to allow each individual "a degree of control over his own fate, for self-respect, for using and increasing his talents, for responsibility, for achievement both in the sense of status and recognition and in the sense of personal development and effective problem solving. (McGregor, 1967)

It is becoming increasingly clear that organizations have to develop mechanisms for two overarching tasks: (1) better means for human communication and collaboration, particularly between levels of hierarchy and between divergent specialists, and (2) better mechanisms for coping with externally induced stress and changes, adaptability. (Schein and Bennis, 1967)

'It is probable that one day we shall begin to draw organization charts as a series of linked groups rather than as a hierarchical structure of individual "reporting" relationships. (McGregor, 1960)

The crucial question is "what comes first?" rather than "what should be done?" There is often substantial agreement as to what should be done, but there is always disagreement as to what should be done first.... The normal human reaction is to evade the priority decision by doing a little bit of everything. (Drucker, 1969)

And finally the characteristics of a modern organization listed by Mason Haire in his work "The Concept of Power and the Concept of Man" is an appropriate summary statement of current direction in organizational theory. And, not accidentally, it is an appropriate introductory statement for the theoretical concepts about change which follow.

The Modern Organization

(1) Looks for initiative, innovation, and judgment from the individual--not the "extra pair of hands."

(2) Builds on a group structure model emphasizing the cohesion and integrity of each unit group and its linkage to groups above, below and around it. It is not built on an accounting model.

(3) Maximizes participation.

(4) Tolerates mistakes. It does not spend inordinate energy "protecting the executive's (psychological) adjustment."

(5) Trains and operates to promote change, development and learning in employees.

(6) Shares objectives, seeks commitment and mutual trust, enhances social and job skills.

(7) Decentralizes

(8) Emphasizes growth and development of employees as a goal of the organization. (Haire, 1962)

CHAPTER V

A FRAMEWORK FOR CHANGE

The Mice were much bothered by a Cat. They decided to hold a council to see what could be done about the matter. During the meeting a young mouse there said, "If the Cat had a little bell tied to her neck, it would tinkle every time she made a step. This would warn us, and we would have plenty of time to reach our homes in safety.

All the Mice applauded this clever scheme until one of them spoke up and said, "It's a fine plan. But which one of us is going to put the bell on the Cat?"

Aesop

The Promised Land

Trouble At the Crossroads

In the discussion on schooling, many problems were exposed--problems in curriculum, staffing, budgeting, use of knowledge, administrative behavior and many others. A priority problem area has been selected, the lack of processes especially designed to insure organizational adaptability. This priority has been selected because (1) it is important--there is a need, (2) it best utilizes the personal resources of the author and (3) it is interesting and "manageable."

More specifically, in terms of system theory three very fundamental aspects of a school organization will be examined.

(1) The school is an open system--that is, it deals with an external environment. It has inputs, some of which come from the larger system, and it has outputs. The outputs, however, are not clear. Moreover, the nature of the system itself is not always open. There is usually not an adequate information or feedback system which relates data or other input to internal performance. The classroom teacher is not reacting directly to constructive community cues. Often the reaction is negative. Somewhere there is interference, distortion, or intentional jamming. The signal strength wavers like a nighttime radio in the wilderness. Nor are the parts of the organization open to one another. The school by practice is "egg-crated," departmentalized, block scheduled, secretive, coercive, segregated and graded. Information does not flow easily from one subsystem to another.

(2) The school is an organic system--it normally interacts with the larger system by either adapting itself or changing the environment. It also adjusts to internal pressures. Its client system is always changing. Yet, schools are by practice only semi-organic. "What was good enough for me is good enough for them" or "It didn't seem to do us any harm" or "We came out all right, didn't we?" or "They really need the basics"--the we, of course referring to teachers and the they referring to students--are commonly heard phrases in the school. Even students are

heard to say, "What are we learning that for? That isn't English." Individuals in school resist newness and growth, and whatever change does occur is often accompanied by negative reaction and bitterness.

(3) The school is a socio-technical system--it consists of technical processes and people dependent on each other. But the system really does not function as it should. Budget times are crisis times. School bonds are lost because people do not understand facts. Schools are rendered dysfunctional by a mimeograph machine which doesn't work. Teachers turn blue over interruptions from the intercom or crises with media equipment. Guidance counselors and administrators don't get along. Physical education teachers are often the nemeses of parents. Some teachers hoard supplies and others are always running out. The principal complains that the business office is making curriculum decisions. For some reason there is not adequate lubrication provided at the interfaces. Machines, methods and people are always grating, always in conflict. These phenomena of the system are not necessary. These conflicts point to the cause of disease found in most schools.

Pluralistic ignorance, selective perception, combat fatigue and negative horn blowing are other symptoms of the disease. Pluralistic ignorance is a group collusion to make an individual plead ignorance even though in isolation that individual would like to contribute. Selective perception

enables individuals to shut out or avoid discomfort. Hearing only what one wants to hear enables that person to maintain his equilibrium in a changing environment.

Selective perception sometimes filters in only negative "bits." Individuals listening to a proposed program may only be "hearing" its potential weaknesses so that they can defend themselves against it.

Combat fatigue is a breakdown caused by external pressure. Too much discomfort causes the individual to withdraw completely from the world around him. Negative horn blowing (the only non-researched phenomenon of the group) is "not blowing one's horn." It is an attempt to maintain absolute mediocrity and to react negatively to deviancy or innovation.

The object of this study is to initiate some attitudinal and structural changes which will influence these systems characteristics and these individual phenomena. The changes, hopefully, will supply the oil needed for the system and will allow the individual to substitute confidence for what is now protection and insecurity. The framework is called Collective Activism, and a concomitant process which takes place within the structure is referred to as OUTCOM.

Collective Activism

A New Frontier

Collective Activism is a way of life. It demands action and performance. People who will embrace Collective Activism will talk in terms of action groups not committees; actors not members; activators not consultants; action plans, not proposals; action profiles, not reports; and action centers not meeting rooms. This is more than label changing--let us illustrate.

An action group will consist of a small group of actors. It will be responsible for and have complete control of one of the functions at the organic core of the school. It will determine priorities and a specific course of action. Actors will have the same responsibility to an action group that theatrical performers have to a play. There is no spectating. Each actor is involved and makes contributions voluntarily in an effort to shape the organization to meet his needs while at the same time respecting the desires of others. Action plans emphasize the action side of planning. Plans are not designed to tell "other people" what is expected or how they should eventually behave. Action plans demand immediate performance of the actor--the planner. The plan specifies what job he is going to do and when that job is going to be finished. Activators are present to clarify, cajole, agitate and in

any other way move the group to take charge of itself. They have no expertise or information to grace the group with. Action profiles, for purposes of information, will spell out specific assignments--who is responsible for what and when. They will list objectives, long and short term. They will be on display always and will be constantly up-dated. Parents, students, teachers, administrators will be able to see, for the first time, where people are in terms of performance, today. Action centers will be comfortable learning environments where groups can meet for long periods of time without disturbance. They will display all action profiles to insure program compatibility. They will be places of self-esteem, hard work, high enthusiasm, high communication and high importance.

It is crucial that the reader understand the spirit of what is proposed. It is dynamic and calls for enthusiasm and performance on the part of the initiators. Collective Activism is both a short term and a long term change process, though it uses the strategy of a temporary system. It deals with people and uses their knowledge and only their knowledge. It is meant to produce the energy which generates from psychological success. It makes use of the action potential created by the conflict between individual desires and organizational goals. It does this by allowing, no, demanding, that individuals change the organization as they want to see it changed. It provides intrinsic rewards to

individuals through involvement, decision making, accomplishment and awareness of individual responsibility to change group direction.

A starting point for this to occur can be suggested but the process itself cannot be too prescriptive. Blueprinting premediates the message which says, "Do it yourself, and do it using your own situations, needs, and interests." For instance teachers and students will operate within a complementary framework but for a variety of reasons. The extent of its use cannot be predicted. A model--one way it can be implemented--will be provided. Conceptualization, not replication, however, is the aim of this description.

A New Settlement

The possibility has been suggested that much of the trouble lies at the interfaces between parts of the organization. Messages do not get through. Styles and curriculum are in conflict. "If I had only known" is a phrase which is symptomatic of the poor communication in school staffs. A strategy, then, would be to use a temporary system as a kind of "shoring up" device at each of these breakdown points. Interfaces will be different in different systems just as they are different in different diamonds. Here are a few common ones.

Staff.....	Parents
Staff.....	Students
Teachers.....	Principals and Supervisors
Department.....	Department
Schools.....	Central Office
School.....	School
System.....	University
System.....	Community groups and Busi- nesses

At each of these connections there is a source of conflict and, consequently, action potential. A temporary system--an action group--will be arranged at each interface consisting of ten or fewer actors representing the two faces. For ease of explanation, the discussion will be confined to two faces, though in reality probably three or four faces would be represented in a group. At this time no other revision has been made of the existing structure; departments, schools, supervisors, whatever, go on functioning. The difference is that they know an action group session is coming up and they are collecting data and impressions which will be used there as input. Actors in the action groups have only the responsibility at this time to store and clarify that information.

Actors are elected for short terms, no more than three or four weeks. The actors are elected by the subsystems they represent. Action groups confer periodically,

say every six or eight months. The conference takes place in an action center and lasts for three or four days. This conference is called an OUTCOM session, and it will be analyzed in the next chapter. At the OUTCOM session the actors develop a cooperative action plan which will be pursued during a length of time specified in the action profile.

There will also be action groups at other levels-- building level and system level. Some of their OUTCOM sessions will be for the purpose of coordinating and prioritizing the other action plans, others will be for unifying their own efforts, still others will be for the purpose of criticizing the Collective Activism system.

Several problems are evident. Size of the community will determine the number of action groups needed so that the cost factor varies. In a community of approximately 20,000 people the areas suggested may be appropriate--say roughly ten interfaces or action groups. Taking into account two sessions for each group with possibly three teachers involved in each, each lasting four days, and substitute salaries at \$35 a day makes the arithmetic look something like this:

$$10 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times \$35 = \$8,400$$

Add to this \$25 per day per person for OUTCOM expenses.

$$10 \times 2 \times 10 \times 4 \times \$25 = \$20,000$$

Twenty-eight thousand, four hundred dollars

is a little more than one-half of one per cent of the school budget or roughly three and one-half teachers' salaries or two assistant principals' salaries. What is being suggested here is that new ways of allocating resources might be envisioned other than the traditional pattern of finding "another pair of hands." More teachers might be involved, long weekends, or vacation times might be used ("selective perception" by the reader being used here?), teachers or administrators covering classes for involved actors, any number of factors would change the total. Three-day sessions instead of four would reduce the cost by 25 per cent. The point is that the investment seems small for the potential outcome.

The problem of several conflicting plans of action is easier to theorize about than solve. The purpose is not necessarily to eliminate conflict. There is no reason why two conflicting action plans could not be pursued simultaneously. That is, if they were planned and exposed that way. It is necessary that the importance of exposing and, to an extent, maintaining conflict is stressed. Schools must learn to tolerate this kind of planned ambiguity. This is the principle of equifinality working. Risk and failure is absolutely essential.

In 1921 Alfred P. Sloan, Jr., took over General Motors when it produced 12 per cent of the automobile market and was on the verge of collapse. With a small group of

executives he completely redesigned the company--its models and its management--in one month. Involved in that redesign was the innovative idea of manufacturing models which competed with each other. This created an economic reconfiguration for the company. It also caused G.M. to be the dominate force in the industry within five years and by far the most profitable. By violating all the "known facts" of the automobile business, Sloan established the world's largest manufacturing enterprise.

Not to slight Ford, it might be noted that after World War II Ford redesigned its own company by hiring G.M. executives...and produced the Edsel. The Edsel is not so remarkable because it failed, but because the company allowed (in the sense of bravado, not stupidity) it to be produced--a competing model that didn't compete. It failed, but obviously Ford didn't fail with it.

Failure is a concomitant of learning. If we don't allow failure, we can never have success. Failure which results from a specific plan of action can be diagnosed and used for future growth. But the crucial element is planning.

To insure against unplanned conflict, the "linking pin" concept, the action profile, and the telephone are used. The "linking pin," a concept developed by Rensis Likert, calls for overlapping membership to insure inter-group compatibility. The logistical problem here can be approached once the number and purpose of groups in action

during a year have been specified and which groups, if not all, would necessitate a "linking pin." The major function of the linking pins will be to interrelate subsystems, not just prevent unplanned conflict.

A dynamic interplay of these subsystems is expected, and the linking pins will be on the lookout for integrating or supplementing or benefiting other group action plans.

Action plans from each of the groups are available. Objectives, target dates, task forces, people involved will be identified so that each action group can refer to the plans of other groups during its session. The telephone or other communication devices will allow actors to check with actors in other groups to insure compatibility of plans.

The nature of the Action Center is a problem of interest. First, each session will be held in a retreat location that is comfortable and conducive to small group work. It is essential that management highlight the importance of action groups by providing them with complete isolation both in location and in time. Second, records, profiles and other information should be available. Perhaps a portable space--a mobile van--can be used in schools and in action centers. Information displayed in action centers will be useful for reporting and scheduling purposes. Parents, students and staff will use them at schools and action groups will use them at OUTCOM sessions.

The question of authority in Collective Activism is

of prime importance. Obviously there is an attempt to decentralize control, but the need for some central control is also obvious. The patterns and beliefs which have existed for so long cannot be broken easily. What alternatives are there? One is to have the Superintendent of Schools be a member of each group. That would mean he would spend approximately 80 days (in the community used as an example) in action groups. Considering that the Superintendent works 240 days, one-third of his time would then be given to clarifying problems, interpersonal relations, determining priorities and planning future courses of action. It sounds as though that is a fair description of some of the things a Superintendent should be doing.

It seems more obvious that he would delegate some of that authority. If he must be in total control, perhaps he would attend half and his assistant half. Possibly some principals could be trusted to make the right decisions. Maybe even a department head or a teacher is dependable and trustworthy! The point is that in most cases at least one of the actors elected to the action group can be depended upon to block irresponsible action. This will be a matter of the superintendent's individual style and his basic assumptions about human nature. It is predicted that Collective Activism will help managers become accustomed to using the judgment and creativity of others.

Will a district using Collective Activism get sick

of meetings? That can be answered in several ways:

(1) Yes.

(2) Meetings are a necessary part of organizing in the modern society. They are consistent with democratic and scientific values. They are part of "learning organization."

(3) Collective Activism does not use "meetings." It assumes that people enjoy working in groups if there is something worthwhile happening and if they are involved. The League of Women Voters has developed a scheme which actively involves each individual in boards, resource groups, briefings, units and a number of other "meetings" where the linking pin concept is used extensively. Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts have had successful Den meetings for decades. Church groups such as Young People's and Couple's Clubs are successful. Everyone knows that the most popular activities at school are the after-school "meetings"--band and play practice, newspaper, field hockey and cheerleading and football. Involvement, recognition, action and achievement are the ingredients. Somehow when men formally organize for business reasons, the threat of accountability results in central control and participant routine. Businesses, industries, and schools will discover, however, that their accountability and productivity will increase if they use the decentralized but highly structured examples of many voluntary group activities.

Is there going to be a great mount of money spent on consultant help? The term "activator" has been used. An activator is envisioned as someone from the staff who has been trained for a specific role. It would be suggested that the initial action group be done in "fish bowl" fashion so that a number of staff members who wish to act as activators later could observe how a knowledgeable consultant functions in an action group. For succeeding sessions those observers, who have also attended briefing and debriefing training sessions with the consultant, will assume the role of activator.

The activator role provides excellent opportunities for an individual who is interested in staff development, communication, and group process work. It is fairly important that he be an "outsider" regarding the focus of a particular action group. His "ignorance" of the content will be useful in pinpointing confusions which exist because of the group's acceptance of symbolic expressions, technical jargon, traditional assumptions, and verbal abstractions. There is no reason he should not be known by the action group. He should not, however, be considered a part of the group or interface represented. He is, in other words, a disinterested participant. The use of outside consultants, in this way, is short lived and inexpensive.

There are other claims and hopes for Collective Activism, but it is more important that the reader understands

at this point what has been referred to several times as OUTCOM. For that reason both an elaboration and a summary of the concept of Collective Activism will be deferred until OUTCOM has been thoroughly described. After the marriage is culminated, the rationale, hopes, and implications will be more meaningful.

C H A P T E R V I

A TECHNIQUE TO INITIATE COMMITMENT

For want of a nail, the shoe was lost;
For want of the shoe, the horse was lost;
For want of the horse, the rider was lost;
For want of the rider, the battle was lost;
For want of the battle, the kingdom was lost;
And all for the want of a horseshoe nail.
The Real Mother Goose

Introduction

The formulation of small, temporary groups to solve problems or design plans of action does not necessarily mean that problems will be solved or plans will be activated. The small group--the action group--provides the environment, but accomplishment within time limits is dependent on more than environment. Strict attention must be paid to processes. That desire to do something must be moved into a "doing."

As a swimming instructor, the author has stood for hours (and days literally) with children pleading with them to "put your face in" or "jump" or "just try it." We have always wished there were some structure, some device, to help that desperate child to "make up his mind." The need is there, the desire is there, but the will needs support. We have watched time and again the brave resolution, the sincere promise, the solemn oath of a child broken later in

emotional refusals, defiance, and embarrassing losses of dignity and respect from others.

It seems we can manipulate our reason and shape our emotion, but when it comes to our will we are slaves. And when that will finally is controlled, when that child finally does jump, he will come up time and time again repeating his jump, despite great exhaustion, feelings of discomfort and the humiliation of having to admit "how easy" it really is. He does this to reconfirm the capture of his will and the freedom of his dignity. And we have seen the remarkable phenomenon of that child's immediate progress in many areas totally unrelated to the waterfront--whether it be athletic, social or intellectual. It is as though all that stored up frustration has suddenly broken loose into a splurge of productivity and a surge of new found and positive independence.

Some people who seem more aggressive, more willing to try, have greater control over their wills. This control and consequent freedom of energy and dignity give them great advantage over more timid souls in terms of increased productivity. These people may have an internal mechanism, conscious or unconscious, which enables them to judge the important from the unimportant. Moreover this internal process uses reflection on past success as a source of motivation rather than fear of future "failure."

Organizations are men in concert. They, too, must

face decisions. The task of corporate decision making is of a different nature, but if decisions are to be turned into actions, those individuals can be helped by a structure designed to release frustration and energize new productivity. The structure is essential to the total effort--to enable man to grow from autism to accomplishment.

In this chapter, the culmination of the case, a specific process will be defined which operationalizes the beliefs and data previously discussed. This final process is called OUTCOM. It will consist of the bones of a tested management technique, the muscle of existing theory, the nerves of current educational need, the heart and blood of a particular belief about the nature of man, and a flesh consisting of the kind of people and environment to be used in a process appropriate for educational management.

A Management Technique

OUTCOM is an action planning process designed to get away from the problem (or crisis) orientation of most individuals. People usually act by reacting to problems and immediately attempting to solve them. This kind of problem-solving is seductive because it avoids risk taking (it doesn't require navigation through uncharted waters) and because it is satisfying (problems get solved). Moving from crisis to crisis is natural because problems are always around and because work gets finished, one problem at a time.

The difficulty with crisis orientation is that solutions often breed new crises in addition to the plethora of problems readily available. Therefore, crisis orientation and sequential problem solving are neither efficient nor achieving modes of operation.

Management Action Program

OUTCOM is an outgrowth of the Management Action Program (MAP) developed recently by the Parallel Planning Corporation, a management consulting firm. MAP is a procedure which has been used successfully with many companies in several industries. It is part of a general preliminary consulting process aimed at helping companies to end up doing things that they knew they wanted to do and never got around to doing.

MAP was developed because of previous frustration in really effectively getting companies to move off the dime. The usual consulting procedure of soliciting information about company problems and then providing a series of suggestions to the president effected little or no change in the company. Clearly something else had to be done, and the things that had to be done were apparent. More people in the company had to honestly participate. The talents of the people in the company had to be used. Listing problems was not the problem; setting priorities was. Role distinctions, traditional methods of operation, perceptions and

misperceptions of co-workers' sensitivities were all blocking action. Procrastination was corroding enthusiasm and perpetuating "mindlessness."

MAP was not designed to lend a consultant "seal of approval" to statements company executives want to make to influence certain publics. If this is the desire, and it often is an authentic cause for consultant help, the wrong technique is being used. MAP was created for organizations which say, "We are in trouble; we are ready to change; we are not quite sure how to change; we are willing to expose our problems; and we are willing (though not eager) to risk our personal securities and personal psychological comforts." If these statements are sincerely felt, the technique is an appropriate one.

An OUTCOM Session

OUTCOM takes the work developed by Parallel Planning and particularly its president, Paul Sorensen, and operationalizes it in an educational setting. The setting has been described in the Collective Activism concept. Participants, purposes, and content are all chosen to move the school or university from crisis or autism to prioritizing and action. In describing the step-by-step operation of OUTCOM, the MAP process is adhered to but placed in a new environment of students, teachers, administrators and citizens.

The selection of participants (the actors in an action group) is of prime importance. They probably should be chosen by the subsystems they represent. It is crucial, however, that they are decision makers. The test of their authority is whether or not they can determine a course of action for their representative party without first having to check with someone not part of the action group. To function most efficiently an action group should have approximately ten actors. When there is a question whether to include someone or not, the choice is usually made in favor of inclusion rather than exclusion. No one is selected solely for the purpose of exposing his incompetency. This decidedly is not the object of the program.

The group is taken on retreat for approximately four days. Ideally the site will be sufficiently remote so that commuting is impossible and interruptions of any kind are infrequent. The physical surroundings are pleasant but not distracting. Since actors will be meeting each day from approximately 8:30 in the morning until midnight, golf courses, beaches and bars will have no use. Sandwiches in the meeting room are usually the luncheon menu.

A comfortable room with ten (if that is the number) easy chairs (no table, no technology) proves the desired environment. A flip chart, a few grease pencils and a roll of masking tape are the only equipment used. Clearly the focus is on people, invention and total involvement.

The objective for the session is to develop an action program which establishes priorities, includes target dates for specific accomplishments and elicits public commitment from all the people present. The program or plan will cover about a 12- to 18-month period with a very detailed course of action for the first six months. Resemblances to laboratory training are primarily structural. No overt attempts are made to change attitudes or behavior of the actors. It would be unreasonable to expect that kind of result in four days of work. All the time is spent working toward the stated objective. It is a time for "school business" involving several highly competent individuals who probably know each other quite well.

A brief orientation by the activator introduces actors to the work at hand. What the group will be doing and how it will operate will be discussed. It will be stated that OUTCOM will set the stage for teachers and administrators to move away from crisis orientation. It will attempt to solve many, many problems at one time. Role distinctions will be erased. The superintendent, if he is present, will be asked to endorse a request to drop all titles, sirs and Mr's. He agrees that everyone will be on a first-name basis. The first task is introduced.

The activator will press everyone to look at all the school problems simultaneously. The stated objective is to get away from the one-by-one problem viewing and

solving orientation. To get this effort underway, the activator will ask what participants think their particular objective is regarding the total educational process. The objective will depend on what groups are represented. The business office may have opinions quite different from the English department or the student council. Thus the goal will have to be general enough to satisfy each facet of the interface involved. This step will help actors of different backgrounds to appreciate each other's interests.

When this statement has been agreed upon, participants are asked to list all the problems which hinder the accomplishment of that goal. The activator asks the group how long it will take them to list all their problems. Since the group has had little or no experience in estimating this kind of exercise, guesses between two hours and two days will be offered. The activator will help the group decide on a time limit--say five hours--to accomplish this first task--and the work begins. Problems begin to tumble out, and as soon as they are recognized as problems and made understandable, they are written down on the flip chart. No agreement or even discussion is necessary.

The activator works to limit discussion unless it is for the purpose of recognizing a problem or defining it. By questioning, "What do you mean?" or "Don't you really mean this?" the activator prods individuals to clarify issues or problems. At times he challenges the group to

to be open and honest. All kinds of problems at different levels of magnitude and specificity are included. Causes are not discussed. Blame is not of interest. Above all else the activator becomes more and more a listener than a participant, more a reactor than an agent. He insists that the group conduct its own business and provide its own direction and leadership.

At the end of five hours the activator reminds the group of the time and activity stops. Various benefits become apparent in addition to sheets of problems which by this time are taped all over the walls. First the activator asks the group how they did, and the usual reply is that there wasn't enough time to finish. Sometimes the activator is blamed for not directing the group activity. The activator in turn charges the group with the responsibility of managing its own time and affairs. Furthermore he suggests that this is an individual responsibility for every and anyone. It is not the superintendent's duty any more than it is any participant's to see that the group operates effectively. Individual enterprise, not blame, makes it possible for groups to achieve their mission.

All the inadequacies revealed through mismanagement of time are exposed. Why didn't the group finish? How was the problem attacked? Was the effort organized? In other words, each participant is made to realize that a group situation demands individual performances. Errors or

omissions have been revealed, and the group has demonstrated its need to manage time and themselves.

The group is now ready for its second task--to list the things which make the school unique. This comes as a relief since it is a less demanding job. Again estimates of how long it will take to specify uniqueness--student achievement, community involvement, athletic program, use of facilities--are made. Suggestions of everything from five minutes to five hours are usually rounded off to about an hour. This time, however, the group has picked its own time limit without help. The effort the group makes to organize itself for this task is probably more important than the outcome. Ordinarily the group realizes that its school is not very unique.

Next, the group is asked to list all of its problems in priority order--an extremely complex task. Estimates on time are made. Someone suggests three hours; someone else suggests 20 hours. Again the group is charged with picking its time. Something between 12 and 18 hours is agreed upon.

The group is now beginning to show some awareness and technique in managing time, but the attempts are primitive. Categorizing and prioritizing 50 or 60 problems is very difficult because of the differences of opinion, the different levels of problems, and the interrelationship of problems. The work goes slowly.

Activator support is useful and given during this

phase of OUTCOM, particularly in areas where his own background and competence can be helpful. It is very important that abstractions--"buzz words" are exposed. Communication and morale, for instance, are not problems. A problem is something much more identifiable. There can be no action solution to abstractions. Abstractions are automatically taken care of later on by the plan of action.

Full agreement is required for the priority list and from this point on in the conduct of the OUTCOM session. Statements such as "I think" or "I'll go along with it" are not acceptable. Each participant must defend his objection until he is persuaded by the group to commit himself to the group decision, or until the group changes its mind. Everyone must agree to the priority listing--there can be no exceptions.

Predictably groups resolve the task of prioritizing over 50 problems by producing three or four issues to be tackled. Experience has shown that there are never more than four priorities listed. The first priority usually accounts for about 30 per cent of all problems. The process has obviously been one of grouping problems, seeing their interrelationship, and going beyond the immediate, apparent need. This wide angle perspective of the school has set a direction and developed a new orientation. Crisis orientation has been overcome; a new plateau in management has been achieved.

Now the group has tested the anticipation of success and the tension and frustration have been transformed into a positive energy which builds through the final Demanding Performance Situation. The task is to tackle each priority by developing a plan of attack. The group has learned to function fairly well. Someone suggests ten hours to take care of priority one, and the group sets out to accomplish the mission. The power displayed here is dramatic. Ten hours is suggested and accepted as a reasonable time to do what ordinarily requires from six months to two years. Each man knows what he is doing, and at once the school becomes "re-organized." Target dates and alternative procedures are established. Who's going to do what, and what happens if something doesn't work are questions considered and solved.

The final process works because people who are responsible for the action are using their own skills and knowledge in developing a plan. Very little help is now needed from the activator. Individual commitment to specific actions by members of the group and short, very short, target dates insure that the plan will be implemented. Each priority is handled in the same way, although action on secondary priorities sometimes depends on the outcome of the first plan. Plug-in time for priorities two, three, and four are noted in the plan for priority one.

Most significantly, the major changes have already been made. Within the four-day period previous programs

and plans have been scrapped. Organizational charts have been discarded. New bridges across interfaces have been built. Titles and responsibilities have been changed. Curriculum alterations have been made. Financial or information strategies have been redesigned. It cannot be overstressed that most of the organizational change resulting from OUTCOM has already been accomplished by the end of the four-day retreat. The superintendent or principal has received his course of action. Firing someone, changing something no longer remains a chore that the administrator is hesitant about doing because of possible staff resentment. Now the group is exhorting and absolutely depending on the administrator to act. Public commitment has provided positive reinforcement for the superintendent and others to act--immediately.

What happens next with OUTCOM? The school leaders know explicitly what to do. During the final day or two they have worked out a very specific series of actions, with every step carefully laid out and "go" or "no go" dates set in a highly detailed plan extending approximately six months into the future. Depending on this plan other objectives have been designed for approximately 12 to 18 months.

Often actors will return to the school and use the same process again with their staff or department. The action group has agreed to meet for six and twelve month reviews. The Demanding Performance Situation has operated

with the objective that participants learn to work effectively and independently. There is no longer a need for the activator's help.

In summary, OUTCOM is the vehicle that forces policy makers to do what they already know must be done. It has attempted to do the following:

- (1) Solve many problems--not one after another;
- (2) Tackle problems together;
- (3) Manage time effectively;
- (4) Realize individual responsibility to help meetings and groups function;
- (5) Organize to produce in relation to over-all objectives;
- (6) Promote unified group management;
- (7) Work out a plan of attack;
- (8) Set target dates;
- (9) Get public commitment from those responsible for decisions;
- (10) Recognize competency and incompetency--performers and nonperformers;
- (11) Combat procrastination;
- (12) Produce a format for the chief executive officer.

The assumption has been made that people do not have to be told their problems. The activator helps to solve problems by developing a Demanding Performance Situation.

He pushes by continually asking, "When?" That insistence is why OUTCOM works, and, in participating, individuals are trained to work better.

Examples

As an attempt to illustrate the effects of this process two cases will be cited briefly; one in business where the process was used, and one in education where the efforts to change might have been different if the process had been used. These illustrations are not meant to provide any test or traditional case study. They are meant to further the effort of conceptualization and clarification.

Company X

MAP was used in the fall of 1969 with the vice presidents in sales of a major insurance company. Ten individuals were involved for four days at a resort hotel on Cape Cod. This company had several serious problems. Administrative processes had deteriorated. The previous year had been a good year in terms of sales but at the expense of years to come. Agents "wrote" anything. During that year 500 new agents were hired. A year later there were approximately 40 left. Top management was new, morale was low, there were no promising programs and the current year had no profit to show.

The MAP process proceeded as previously described.

The actors met for approximately 40 hours over the four-day period. In this time they decided that their priority problem was "Developing competent managers." Without increasing the budget or using outside help, many program changes were made. Each participant developed his own action plan with delivery dates. At a follow-up meeting four months later everyone was found to be on schedule. Some of the program changes which affected the recruitment and training of competent managers were part of what became referred to by the company as the "Cape Cod philosophy."

-A 20-year old, \$120,000 per year school system for new agents was terminated. This money was redirected to the development and hiring of competent managers.

-The company for the first time went out of the insurance industry to find people who knew how to manage people.

-The traditional nomenclature of "general agent," "agency," "assistant," "agent," "cashier," was changed nationwide within one month.

-A 90-day performance standard was developed for all new managers.

-Of 18 new managers, ten were from outside of the industry.

-A "Full Bag" concept was developed which in essence gave greater resources to high performing managers. Ten successful managers were asked to develop their own action

plans without constraints which were then adopted. This resulted in a redistricting and in one case a doubling of proceeds.

-All managers developed their own standards of measurement. This became operational for everyone in the business--top to bottom.

-Incompetent managers were released.

-Conference calls became a routine communications system.

-More and shorter meetings were held.

-One regional office was closed.

-Two vice presidents were terminated.

-Costs within a year were under budget.

-Profits within a year were 20 per cent over preceding year.

- "In a year's time there's been one hell of a change!"

--Vice President of Sales

School Y

Coordinated Staffing was initiated in System Y by a general staff dissatisfaction with the difference being paid to teachers who held masters degrees in subject matter and to those with masters degrees in teacher education. A committee was formed and in three or four sessions decided, not unanimously, that perhaps it would be better for staff morale to pay all teachers with masters degrees the same differential. Some members of the school committee and of

the teachers' association had reservations about that decision because it was recognized that an attempt had been made to attract the best teachers possible to the community, and the elimination of the differential was doing nothing to improve teacher recruitment.

The Coordinated Staffing Committee

At the same time (1969) the staff was finding it increasingly difficult to live with the statements in their contract about teacher load (particularly in the elementary grades) and the amount of free time given each day and each week to teachers. The teachers' association initiated another committee, again jointly with the school committee, to study this issue. It was felt that this issue and the recruitment issue and another concern, teacher aides and whether they could be used to advantage in the system, were reasons that staffing in general could be the study of that committee.

The committee, which was later called the Coordinated Staffing Committee (CSC), never had a specific charge. The study issue was nebulous except for the one core problem of additional planning time. The teachers' association was given the opportunity to (and did) choose its own representatives to be on that committee. They also signified their approval of all the other members. Four consultants to the committee were chosen by administrators. It is safe to say that the make-up of this committee and its

function and its interests were unanimously approved by all the members of the committee.

Committee Activity

The committee met about every three weeks from October to June. Meetings were held at members' homes. All meetings except for the last two were held at night and off school property. Beverages and snacks were served. All meetings were recorded on tape. The atmosphere was informal and open. Agendas for meetings were distributed by the chairman. He also distributed literature which he or others felt to be appropriate. Discussions centered on the nature of teaching and their need for additional time. Differentiated staffing was often an issue.

Two events should be noted. A dinner meeting called by the Superintendent and held at a university retreat site was attended by all administrators and the members of CSC. The unusual visibility given to the committee by this meeting made the committee a subject of interest. The committee, itself, through the Superintendent, called a system-wide meeting. For the first time in town history school was canceled for the morning as teachers and administrators attended this meeting. Even more than the previous meeting, this meeting gave the committee staff and public attention.

Z School Project and Other Events

The committee decided to ask an elementary school if they would like to participate in an experiment to view

different ways to increase teacher planning time and to create group planning time. What was hoped for by the Coordinated Staffing Committee was an experiment to determine how things worked in a real situation.

Two other things happened at the close of the year. The CSC had a final meeting with the school committee and the teachers' association officers where a rather complex report on coordinated staffing was unraveled with recommended actions for the teachers' association and school committee. The second event was an announcement a day or two later that the chairman of the CSC had been appointed to the position of director of the coordinated staffing project in Y while studying at the University of Massachusetts.

Coordinated Staffing Report Follow-up

In the fall of the following year the president of the teachers' association decided to take a look at the CSC report to impose or dispose it partially or entirely. He asked the newly appointed project director to join a meeting to answer questions on coordinated staffing. It was clear from that meeting that what up to that point had been rumblings and suspicions had now shaped themselves into a major threat. The teachers were now prepared for whatever it was that "the administration was selling to them."

Introduction of an EPDA Proposal

At the meeting to discuss the CSC report, the

president of the teachers' association called for an ad hoc committee to pursue the CSC report. At its first meeting the project director suggested to the members of this committee that they contact the superintendent of schools since coordinated staffing was historically a joint concern. The superintendent told the committee that he was interested in pursuing the idea and that the members might want to attend a meeting to be held in a couple of days. The committee inferred they were going to that meeting to discuss coordinated staffing and the possible formation of a system council made up of teachers who would sit with the superintendent to talk about education matters but found themselves at a kind of negotiating table with six or seven administrators, with the superintendent and the assistant superintendent, and with assorted department chairmen and central office supervisors. They discussed a federal proposal for differentiated staffing in School Y.

The Proposal

There were elements in the proposal itself, or at least in the draft, which teachers discussed in informal workshops before the final proposal was completed, which were questionable. There was an indication that a change in salary schedule might be made which would lower the ceiling of those teachers who wished to be eligible for the newly created funds. A teacher would have his choice of continuing on the regular schedule with no loss of earning potential or

go on a different salary schedule to increase his earning through the proposed research and development fund. This clause was eventually taken out of the proposal. There was discussion about the make-up of a school council. It was suggested that perhaps teachers would be a minority on the council if teachers were defined as staff members with 100 per cent classroom duty.

At a meeting in late October, approximately one year after the formation of the CSC, the combined staffs of all schools voted on the proposal for an EPDA grant to establish within three years a five per cent research and development discretionary fund to be used by teachers for curriculum development and other projects. The intent was to give an opportunity to some staff members to earn substantial salary increases for accepting additional responsibilities. The final vote was 40 in favor, 170 against, signaling the end of the coordinated staffing effort.

The Problems

What has been presented is a cognitive description of events taking place in a period of time. There are many other events which greatly affected the school staff. An attempt will be made to list them.

(1) Problems were not identified--the assumption that the CSC was formed to "study staffing" was not universally accepted.

(2) Problems were not clarified--merit pay, release

time, differentiated staffing were "problems" with many different connotations.

(3) The charge of the committee was not defined.

(4) The authority of the committee was not defined--its power to initiate a project at the Z school was questioned.

(5) The selection process of committee members was not clear to the staff.

(6) Additional members' status was not clear.

(7) The cost of supporting four consultants for a year was questioned.

(8) A vested interest with the University of Massachusetts became evident.

(9) Channels of communication to the outside were not officially established.

(10) Public relations were not handled well.

(11) Relationships to the Superintendent and Board were unspecified. Could the committee establish policy, write memos to the staff, call staff meetings?

(12) An address by Dwight Allen and a later consulting day spent by another University of Massachusetts staff member were interpreted as CSC endorsements.

(13) Meetings became habitual rather than purposeful.

(14) Staff apprehension was allowed to build through pronouncements, staff meetings, and projects--all unofficially endorsed.

(15) Credibility and knowledge gaps between the

committee and the staff grew as time went on.

(16) The Z school staff was rushed into an ambitious program with no preparation and little support.

(17) Communication between the Z school and the staff was nonexistent.

(18) Work done by Z school faculty were "favours," not assignments duly recognized and compensated for.

(19) The committee chairman's reassignment from assistant principal to project director late in the year was unsettling.

(20) A proposal for federal funding was being written "in secret," later to be used as part of the CSC effort.

(21) Membership in the committee, in particular the president of the teachers' association, changed over the summer.

(22) The new teachers' association president took on the personal challenge of defeating the efforts of "differentiated staffing," and was successful.

(23) The several "surprise" meetings of teachers and administrators together to discuss critical issues was not a regular and recognized procedure.

(24) Last minute attempts to involve staff in proposal revision proved to be in vain.

(25) The proposal became "personified"; directly connected to the chairman of the CSC, who was "using the opportunity to get his doctorate," and the assistant

superintendent, who was "bucking for the superintendency."

(26) The superintendent remained neutral.

(27) The position of the school board was never known.

If the entire Coordinated Staffing Committee were hypothetically replaced by a four-day OUTCCM, some advantages can be seen.

(1) High original enthusiasm would not dampen in four days. Commitment initially shown by representation, expenditure and joint need would have been capitalized on.

(2) Responsibility would not have drifted from the group individuals to the chairman.

(3) Objectives and problems would have been clearly identified.

(4) The knowledge, credibility gap built by the "grand design" would have been avoided and replaced by action programs.

(5) The Z school program would have had better timing and management assignments. It would have been operated by the school system, not a volunteer committee.

(6) Communication would be carried by action programs, not gossip or distorted messages by "representatives."

(7) Judgment could have been suspended, rather than allowing the solution-oriented impetus, in this case differentiated staffing, to creep in and dominate.

(8) Discussion could have been held by other groups

elsewhere. Discussion and action are not compatible.

(9) Leadership could have revolved.

(10) Aggregate aggravation would not have been a factor. As it was, irrelevant issues as they occurred--firing of a teacher, doctoral studies, merit pay, Dwight Allen, Z school problems--became very relevant issues.

(11) Critical membership changes would not have been possible.

(12) There would have been no confusion as to whether the group was to study or to act.

(13) Staff pluralistic ignorance and selective perception would not have had time to develop.

(14) Group report and action would have been group responsibility and therefore easier to implement staffwide.

Summary

It is hoped that these illustrations will indicate to the reader that OUTCOM can be a valuable action planning tool for schools. MAP has been changed to the acronym OUTCOM because MAP is a "bottled" technique used in business. It has a business "ring"; it uses business language; it works with "top management" because "that's where the problems are."

It is not so certain where the problems are in education--in the classroom, business office or elsewhere. OUTCOM, hopefully, will be helpful in many school situations.

It has already been used experimentally with students in a high school classroom, in a recruiting workshop for two school districts in California and for a team of teachers in an elementary school. As Peter Drucker says, "Every knowledge worker is an executive. If one element of OUTCOM were to be isolated as most essential, it would be the time limit. The deadline works as a psychological reminder to keep moving, to cut out irrelevancies and to manage time. Other important factors are

- the suspension of solution or choice thinking throughout the problem listing and prioritizing stages
- the demand for performance
- the use of existing competencies.

Clearly these are all elements which contribute not only to the success of OUTCOM sessions but to the successful management of future experiences.

Few changes have been made in the MAP process other than renaming it OUTCOM. It is suggested that in the theoretical setting of Collective Activism it can be something very different from MAP--what, as yet, is not certain. It is a crutch to help people make decisions. Those decisions are not necessarily business decisions. But the procedure, the intent, will be the same--to come to closure. The number of people, their position, the place are relatively unimportant. What is important is that a means is provided for small groups to make large decisions in a very short

time. OUTCOM could be one way to help individuals find other and better ways. We don't want the kingdom to suffer for want of a nail.

CHAPTER VII

SHARING THE PROPHETS

The intent of this chapter is to show the relationship between the literature and practice described in Chapters II and III and the framework and process developed in Chapters IV, V, and VI. The essential elements of Collective Activism and OUTCOM will be matched with the theoretical variables so that the research process and conceptual base will be made clear. Each major heading will reflect a basic intent. The intent will be explained, and then specific variables from research supporting that intent will be given. Specific elements from Collective Activism and OUTCOM will then be listed which are related to that evidence. There is no priority or order of elements. They are to be considered a loop of interdependent factors. Page references indicate page numbers in the dissertation itself.

Eliminate the Bureaucratic Structure

The description of the "classical" model of organization given by Weber (page 47) and summarized on page 62 is applicable to the organizational model of most schools today. Obviously, there are no absolutes in categorizing organizations, but it can be assumed that if measured on an organizational dimension, schools would be identified

with the "bureaucratic," "engineering," "scientific management," "classical" model. Theory has shown this model to lack processes for adjustment and adaptability. (Haire, page 50, Bennis, page 51). It is essential therefore that to initiate change, schools must change their bureaucratic structure.

They must become open, organic, socio-technical systems concerned about their information flow, their adaptability and growth, and the effectiveness of their internal work-flow processes.

Organic Structures

Adaptive, temporary systems of diverse specialists, solving problems, linked together by coordinating and task-evaluation specialists, in organic flux, will gradually replace bureaucracy as we know it.

The main challenge confronting today's organization, whether it is a hospital or a business enterprise, is that of responding to changing conditions and adapting to external stress. The traditional ways that are employed to measure organizational effectiveness... yield static time-slices of performance and satisfaction, which may be irrelevant or misleading. These static, discrete measurements do not provide viable measures of health, for they tell us nothing about the processes by which the organization copes with its problems.

The methodological rules by which the organization approaches its task and exchanges with its environments are the critical determinants of organizational effectiveness. (Bennis, 1966)

An effective, collaborative climate is easier to experience and harder to achieve than a formal description, but most students of group behavior would agree that it should include the following ingredients: flexible and adaptive structure, utilization of member talents, clear and agreed-upon goals, norms of openness, trust, and cooperation, interdependence, high

intrinsic rewards, and transactional controls, i.e., members of the unit should have a high degree of autonomy and a high degree of participation making key decisions.

Developing this group "synergy" is difficult, and most organizations take the easy way out: a "zero synergy" strategy. This means that the organization operates under the illusion that it will lure the best individuals in the world and then adopt a Voltairean stance of allowing them to "cultivate their own gardens".... Academic narcissism goes a long way on the lecture platform but may be positively dysfunctional for developing a community.

Our educational system should (1) help us to identify with the adaptive process without fear of losing our identity, (2) increase our tolerance of ambiguity without fear of losing intellectual mastery, (3) increase our ability to collaborate without fear of losing our individuality, and (4) develop a willingness to participate in social evolution while recognizing implacable forces. In short, we need an educational system that can help us make a virtue out of contingency rather than one which induces hesitance or its reckless companion, expedience. (Bennis, 1968)

The strategic objective should be to place the enterprise in a position in its environment where it has some assured conditions for growth.... (Emergy and Trist, 1959)

Perfect integration within an action system is not found in the empirical world, as motivated actors contend with the exigencies of survival in a particular environment.... In view of the strain toward inconsistency among the interconnecting systems, there is a need for coordination within an action system so that there may be "continual action in concert." (Parsons in Owens, 1970)

Effective organization is a function of the work to be done and the resources and techniques available to do it. (Brown, 1960)

Organizations are understood only in terms of their activities or processes. When we observe an organization we do not see its inner workings.... Organizations, at any one time, will have several different groups with several different and contradictory rationalities.... Organizations tend toward stability and atrophy because they have internal selectors which give the illusion that all is going well when in fact the group has paid

virtually no attention to the changing environment.... Organizations are reluctant to disturb their orderly processes, and this deficiency makes it impossible to create order. It is the unwillingness to meet equivocality in an equivocal manner that produces failure, nonadaptation, autism, isolation from reality, psychological cost, etc.... If people enjoy or find comfort in order and unequivocal, they will tend to stick to the processes which maintain them. In this case adaptation and survival become distinct problems which they are unlikely to solve.... An organization is fluid, continually changing, continually in need of reaccomplishment, and it appears to be an entity only when this fluidity is "frozen" at some moment in time. This means that we must define organization in terms of organizing.... Chaotic action is preferable to orderly inaction.

The basic raw materials on which organizations operate are informational inputs that are ambiguous, uncertain, equivocal.... There are many sets of outcomes that might occur. Organizing serves to narrow the range of possibilities, to reduce the number of "might occurs." An organization attempts to transform equivocal information into a degree of unequivocal with which it can work and to which it is accustomed. This means that absolute certainty is seldom required. It also means that there can be enormous differences among organizations and industries with respect to the level of clarity that they regard as sufficient for action.

It takes variety to destroy variety. (Ashby's Law of Requisite Variety--Ashby, 1956)

The process and the input to be handled by the process must have the same degree of chaos or orderliness. If an orderly process is applied to a chaotic set of information inputs, then only a small portion of those inputs will be attended to and made unequivocal We must disorder the process, scramble it, add or remove components, change the entire relationship in some way in order to remove disorder. An equivocal process will guarantee that equivocality in the input will be properly registered. Whether it will be acted upon is not predictable. (Weick, 1969)

A kind of Gresham's law prevails. That is that people respond to the programmed tasks facing them before responding to the unprogrammed ones. Since programmed tasks tend to drive out unprogrammed ones, organizations need mechanisms for making sure the unprogrammed ones get worked out. Deviants are one mechanism; specialized

staff groups are another; participation is a third.
(Leavitt, 1964)

The modern organization must be capable of change. Indeed it must be capable of initiating change, that is, innovation.

An organization, whatever its objectives, must therefore be able to get rid of yesterday's tasks and thus to free its energies and resources for new and more productive tasks. (Drucker, 1969)

The structural changes called for in Collective Activism and OUTCOM--the use of small temporary, mixed groups working at the interface--will allow the school to

- (1) Participate in social evolution (Bennis)
- (2) Use available resources and techniques (Brown)
- (3) Coordinate interconnected systems (Parsons)
- (4) Have adaptive temporary systems of diverse specialists (Bennis)
- (5) Identify processes to accomplish tasks and to exchange with the environment (Bennis)
- (6) Assess dynamic internal processes for coping with problems (Bennis)
- (7) Eliminate old tasks and take on new ones (Drucker)
- (8) Attend to unprogrammed tasks (Leavitt)
- (9) Register equivocality and act on it (Weick)
- (10) Expose inactive stabilizers (Weick)
- (11) Increase collaboration while retaining individuality (Bennis)
- (12) Establish identity while striving for adaptability (Bennis)

(13) Tolerate ambiguity and failure (Haire)

(14) Assure growth through reaccomplishment (Weick)

Specifically Collective Activism and OUTCOM will create an organic structure by

(1) Having small group retreats

(2) Mixing people--students, teachers, parents

(3) Linking action groups

(4) Providing mechanisms (OUTCOMS) for accomplishing tasks, exchanging with the environment, stimulating serendipity

(5) Providing group identity through projects

(6) Repeating OUTCOMS for renewal

(7) Eliminating or terminating tasks

(8) Using available resources by and through action groups

(9) Permitting failure because of repeated OUTCOMS which tend to self-correct

(10) Providing internal group and organization self-assessment.

(11) Building toward matrix staffing and profit center organization

Eliminate Prepackaged Change

A distinction must be made between planned change and preplanned change. Bennis has said that "men and women...(must) recognize their moral, ethical and emotional

involvement in human institutions. The alternative is... a society of petite Eichmanns." McGregor insists that we should adopt a strategy of "management by integration and self-control." His Theory Y suggests that people can be perceived as responsible, creative, wanting to be involved and self-directed.

Yet, most attempts to change are other-directed ("laid on us," as Kenneth Blanchard would say). Planned change, however, is collaborative, educational, experimental, task-oriented and creative (page 66). The stress here is not on rationality or perfection; rather it is on involvement and action. This learning by doing approach is a model to be used with third graders and superintendents alike. Teaching or "laying on" abstractions first is not a natural learning process.

Action Planning

...the individual's intention to act rationally is bounded by perceptual and information-processing limits.... We operate on the basis of sufficient rather than complete knowledge. (The concept of bounded rationality and the concept of satisficing.) (Simon, 1957)

The best decision is judged by criteria of having achieved the desired objective with least cost, least energy, and least undesirable side effects and carried with it the most valuable by products. In other words, decisions can best be evaluated in terms of subsequent events, and unfortunately it is then too late to change the decision. For example, General Eisenhower's decision to invade the French coast at a time when the weather report was doubtful is regarded as a good one because it turned out that the weather did not interfere with the plans. (Maier, 1963)

If capable people are not lured by the rest of the world into seeking "perfect" solutions for their problems but limit their searches instead to finding satisfactory solutions, they can operate with considerable savings in effort. (Leavitt, 1964)

Planning in the absence of action is basically unconstrained; the only actions available for reflective attention are the planning acts themselves. The members can learn more and more about how to plan and how they are planning, but they can lose sight of what they were originally planning for.

Goals are sufficiently diverse, the future is sufficiently uncertain, and the actions on which goal statements could center are sufficiently unclear, that goal statements exert little control over action.

It is wasteful to spend time trying to anticipate future contingencies, because one can never know how things will turn out. If, instead, actions were taken which then could be viewed reflectively and made sensible, there is greater likelihood that efficiency would improve.

Rationality makes sense of what has been not what will be.

Rationality in planning might be a rationalization for gaining control by an expedient set of alliances.

Organizing takes place before the reason for organizing becomes apparent. The absence of a goal makes it more rather than less like an organization.

Too little attention has been paid to actions and too much to cognitions, plans, beliefs. Cognitions may well summarize previous actions rather than determine future actions, yet this possibility has not been considered seriously.

Groups form to share affects more than cognitions.

People are ambivalent; they have a tendency to be similar and dissimilar in groups...to say that organized life is controlled by shared goals is to present an overly simplified picture.

Goal consensus as a predecessor of action is not valid because consensus is impossible unless there is something tangible around which it can occur. And this "something tangible" may well turn out to be actions already completed. Thus it is entirely possible that goals statements are retrospective rather than prospective.

If action is postponed, meaning will be postponed, and any chance of clarifying the situation will decrease, simply because there is nothing available to be clarified or made meaningful.

Action when viewed retrospectively, clarifies what the organization is doing and what its projects may be. Inaction, viewed retrospectively, is more difficult to render meaningful; there is greater likelihood for irrelevant meanings to be attached and for a state of autistic thinking to develop. Dwelling on the "good old days" (and inaction will force retrospective thinking to the good--active--old days) restricts adaptive thinking and action. Inaction thus causes inaction--an entropic cycle.

The phrase "enacted environment" preserves the crucial distinctions that we wish to make, the most important being that the human creates the environment to which the system then adapts. The human actor does not react to an environment, he enacts it.

One feature is the summary experience--"We can know what we've done only after we've done it." Shutz calls it the "Meaningful Lived Experience." "Only by doing is it possible for us to discover what we have done." We exist in a stream of experience. Experience becomes such (discrete, bounded, separate) when we step out of the stream to reflect. "It is only possible to direct attention to what has already passed; it is impossible to direct attention to what is yet to come."

George Herbert Mead says "an act is an impulse that maintains the life process by the selection of certain sorts of stimuli it needs. Thus the organism creates its environment." Man, thus, has a selecting mechanism which selects in those stimuli he needs and selects out those stimuli which are not necessary for survival (physical, psychological or otherwise). We carry this response repertoire with us wherever we go noticing those stimuli which permit us to do what we want to do--to protect the "essential states" (Ashby) which enable us to continue living.

The predominant theories in organization are those which view organizations as adapting to the environment. The actors are reacting to environmental (either internal or external) contingencies.

When a group is without a project and is confused, the emission of actions which can be viewed reflectively increases the chances that the group may discover what it is doing. But in the absence of action, there is little chance to clarify the confusion. Thus, when there is confusion in a group and someone asks, "What should I do?" and some other member says, "I don't know, just do something," that is probably a much better recommendation than one might realize. It is better for the simple reason that it increases the likelihood that something will be generated which can then be made meaningful. (Weick, 1969)

Thereby Collective Activism and OUTCOM are built around a framework of action planning which

(1) Uses "bounded rationality" and the concept of "satisficing" (Simon)

(2) Acts concurrently with or previous to goal setting (Weick)

(3) Observes affective concerns (Weick)

(4) Enacts the environment, does not react to it (Mead)

(5) Uses conflict as a base for productivity (Chin)

(6) Generates information through actions (Schutz)

Specifically Collective Activism and OUTCOM use action planning by

(1) Identifying priorities

(2) Developing a course of action

(3) Creating action groups of diverse frames of reference

(4) Building on conflict

(5) Rewarding creativity and ideas by involvement and achievement

(6) Anticipating, expecting and accepting failure

(7) Capitalizing on action potential and psychological success

(8) Developing group identity and uniqueness

(9) Considering the affective realm of decision-making

- (10) Initiating commitment
- (11) Creating time targets
- (12) Utilizing the "hope factor"--things can get better and you can have a part in making them better

Eliminate Training As A Strategy for Change

Many writings have indicated that training is not an important factor in initiating change or in determining effective leadership (pages 40, 71, 94, and 104). Perhaps what is learned is a new concept of training--one that sees man as a learning and achieving animal, interested in the here-and-now life--a concept of training which emphasizes educational action and effective work groups. Reward systems built on training dull creativity, spread homogeneity, and establish dependency on "expertise." Students who are denied citizenship or participation in society while they are "preparing" for it are really displaced persons waiting for a world in which their training will be out of date and useless except as a status credential. Training thus assumes conventional, anachronistic behavior and perceptions while it precludes the meaningful here-and-now experiences which could familiarize the individual with problem-solving, group activity, and the ability to act.

Action Management

I concentrated on the management of conflict.
(Bennis, 1970)

Management development programs need, I submit, to be oriented much more toward the future, toward change, toward differences from current forms of practice and behavior.

Size and specialization have forced the individual manager to give part way to the group, to recognize his dependence on his subordinates. One head is no longer big enough to get all the facts, to analyze them, to decide, and to act. True, business has used committees and other small groups for a long time, but it is only recently that the small group has been consciously singled out as a major problem-solving tool. (Leavitt, 1964)

...management will make full use of the potential capacities of its human resources only when each person in an organization is a member of one or more effectively functioning work groups that have a high degree of group loyalty, effective skills of interaction and high performance goals. ...management should deliberately endeavor to build these effective groups, linking them into an over-all organization by means of people who hold overlapping group membership. (Likert, 1961)

The concept of system is overused. Abolish it and we do away with "systems goals." The school system is really a series of systems with autonomous relationships. We should increase not erase the boundaries between the parts or systems. We should enhance not eradicate conflict; we should deal with the relationship of differentiated parts. Thus the administrator is an interrelator not an integrator. (Chin, 1971)

The goal wasn't just to think with department blinders on, but it was to get the job done for the benefit of the whole show.... This may sound like small stuff.... As they kept making different changes, these small changes had a way of snowballing.... You can talk a lot about human relations, but unless you can show something that you have done, why it is only a lot of talk...the elimination of bottlenecks as a rewarding experience in itself.... All of us are more willing to get along because there are fewer reasons for squawking at each other.... The focus was on the problem, not on people.... We came to look at the other guy's problems from his point of view...getting people to cooperate with one another is not something that can be taught.

There is a basic assumption behind many "human relations" training programs throughout industry that it is possible to teach human relations "skills" apart from the socio-technical matrix in which such skills are to

be exercised. The observation made here strongly suggests that "getting people to cooperate with one another" is not something that can be taught. A willingness to cooperate evolves from a change in the total system of relationships. It cannot be generated in the training classroom alone but must start at the top and permeate down through the entire organization in day-to-day relationships.

Once the system was geared to meet changing external conditions; it was capable of generating new ideas for improvement. The fact of continued improvement makes it clear that once a pattern of relationships has been found rewarding and productive, an organization does not have to depend on any unique actions of its leader to sustain its success.

The new manager in a very real sense "integrated" the larger with the immediate objectives and in so doing helped the supervisors do what they had always wanted to do but couldn't--run their own operations efficiently. It is worth repeating that the reduction of interpersonal conflict depended upon and emerged concurrently with improvements in the technical system. (Guest, 1962)

There's nothing about an administrative procedure which will overcome inertia. It takes an action getting manager to make things happen.

Good management then means action--and not reaction--to both internal conflict of its affairs, but also action for greater social responsibility in the narrow community in which it operates--and in the world beyond.

No manager ever produced anything by merely watching a figure, and management dynamics emphasizes the doing first, and the administrative toting up second. (Odiorne, 1961)

It is the job of the top people in the innovative organization to try to convert the largest possible number of ideas into serious proposals for effective, purposeful work.

A top management that believes its job is to sit in judgment will inevitably veto the new idea.

Every knowledge worker is an executive. (Drucker, 1969)

...work without deadlines is not work assigned but work toyed with. (Drucker, 1964)

Thereby action management will supplant or at least supplement training as an effective strategy for initiating

change.

Action Management will

- (1) Establish a pattern of meeting contingencies (Bennis)
- (2) Use groups for problem-solving (Hamburg)
- (3) Prioritize problems and programs (Drucker)
- (4) Focus on problems not people (Guest)
- (5) Eliminate bottlenecks in socio-technical system (Guest)
- (6) Enhance conflict and interrelate different parts (Chin)
- (7) Link membership in small groups (Likert)
- (8) Be oriented toward changing current practice and behavior (Leavitt)
- (9) Establish regular, authentic relationships (McGregor)
- (10) Demand performance from self and others (Odiorne)
- (11) Encourage reward and improve creative proposals (Drucker)

Collective Activism and OUTCOM will facilitate action management by the introduction of

- (1) Temporary problem-solving groups
- (2) Time targets
- (3) Courses of action--projects
- (4) Priority objectives

- (5) Interface action
- (6) Collaboration
- (7) Decentralization
- (8) Conflict utilization
- (9) Creativity assignments
- (10) Group and Organizational effectiveness analysis concurrent with task
- (11) Job enlargement and voluntary assignment
- (12) Performance recognition
- (13) Action profiles
- (14) Full consensus--full commitment
- (15) Tension resolution

Eliminate Closing or "Freezing"

To be effective, schools must share the characteristics of an open system (page 54). Somehow there must be a disruption of equilibrium or a balance between stabilization and change (pages 55, 111, 112).

School processes are structured so that stability stifles innovation (pages 106 to 108). Just as in the learning situation where primary concern for discipline and control actually hinders discipline and control (pages 88 and 92), the concern for school administrators to remain stable and processes to remain stable actually hinders stability (pages 95, 97, 98 and 110).

The intersystem theory of Chin (pages 55 and 56)

allows managers to pay attention to the fault lines of change.

Temporary Systems

There will be adaptive, rapidly changing temporary systems. There will be task forces composed of groups of relative strangers with diverse professional backgrounds and skills organized around problems to be solved. (Bennis, 1968)

The temporary society provides an environment which meets personal needs, reduces defensiveness, and releases potential for creativity and innovation--miniature societies, to which one can become committed intensively, meaningfully, satisfyingly--and impermanently.... Temporary systems allow the participants to experiment with new roles unhampered by role expectations others usually hold for him.... Temporary systems encourage unfreezing...by coercion or disconfirmation. Old Roles are made meaningless and the way is cleared for change. (Miles, 1964)

Lewin identified as the stages of change (1) unfreezing, (2) changing, and (3) refreezing. (Schein and Bennis, 1967)

Some of the elements which all unfreezing situations have in common are the following:

(1) the physical removal of the influence target from his accustomed routines, sources of information, and social relationships

(2) the undermining and destruction of social supports

(3) demeaning and humiliating experience to help the target see his old self as unworthy and thus to become motivated to change

(4) the consistent linking of reward with willingness to change and of punishment with unwillingness to change

Internalization and Identification must occur from within--within the prison camp, the convent, or AA. The target for identification, the model, must be close to the change. (Schein, 1968)

Temporary systems which can have revitalizing effects on their participants

conferences	ad hoc task forces
love affairs	personnel assessment programs
demonstration	psychotherapeutic system
games	lawmaking body
battle	utopian exhibits
carnivals	consulting system
juries	office holder
research projects	intergovernmental structure

The termination point of a system can be

(1) identified chronologically and explicitly (the workshop is over at noon on June 28)

(2) linked to a specified event (the research project is over when the manuscript is sent to the printer)

(3) made contingent on the achievement of a general state of affairs (the psychoanalysis is over when patient and analyst agree that the patient can function adequately)

Temporary groups are formed by function. They can

(1) maintain or compensate (conference)

(2) accomplish a task (jury)

(3) change (consultant-client system or pilot project)

Permanent groups are particularly ineffective for the latter. We spend most of our time complaining about or coping with the existing situation.

Characteristics of Basic Temporary Systems

(1) Input Characteristics

(a) Time limits--all participants are aware of time

(b) Initial goal definition--in a time-limited setting it is perhaps easier to identify future wishes which are not only important but achievable.

(c) Boundary maintenance operations

(d) Physical and social isolation--"cultural island" (Lewin)

(e) Size and place limitations

(2) Process characteristics

(a) Time use--do it now

(b) Goal redefinition--joint acceptance

(c) Procedures--"rules of the game" help to give less ambiguity and anxiety. They add predictability, controllability (the person can control) and compellingness which all help to bring about innovation

(d) Role redefinition and socialization--divestment of old expectations

Temporary systems facilitate

- (1) person changes--retraining
- (2) relationship changes
- (3) action changes

Most temporary systems are characterized by

- (1) equalitarianism
- (2) authenticity
- (3) inquiry--self-examination, self-renewal
- (4) hypotheticality
- (5) newism
- (6) effortfulness
- (7) heightened awareness--expanded consciousness

Problems and Dysfunctions of Temporary Systems

- (1) overload--fatigue, dealing with too much
- (2) unrealistic goal setting--guaranteed disenchantment
- (3) lack of process skills--task and interpersonal
- (4) alienation--from outside environment
- (5) linkage failure--between systems, the "cultural island" versus the "real world."

Temporary systems are particularly effective in socializing their members for immediate performance because

- (1) focused goals and clear procedures help to make appropriate behavior highly visible,
- (2) most temporary systems involve vigorous participation by one's peers; they, rather than authority figures, become the models of behavior. (Miles, 1964)

Disaster, social emergency, Communist takeover--these kinds of events encourage people to "come out of their shells" and participate. This heightened participation in times of temporary crisis is known as the halo effect. (Loomis in Benne, 1961)

In 1794 Dr. Ranieri Gerbi, a professor at Pisa found that toothaches (431 out of 629) were stopped immediately when fingers on the patient's right hand which had previously crushed the Curculio worm touched the affected tooth. When later the ladybird was substituted for the worm (a gesture of gentility), 60 to 70 per cent of the cases were just as successful. The placebo effect is a phenomenon, appropriate for a temporary system, where the group has faith in the general efficacy of whatever treatment is taking place. (Miles, 1964)

The certainty that the association will not be prolonged lends a freedom of expression and sharing to

members that is harder to achieve in a group drawn from an organization where the tenure of continued association is indefinite.... (There is) a motivation to live the association intensively and to the hilt, with some relaxation of anxieties for the consequences which stretch beyond its closing. (Benne, 1964)

Often the atmosphere of temporary systems encourages the individuals to do exactly what is most strictly forbidden. (Miles, 1964)

Thereby the introduction of temporary action groups utilizing the spirit and structure of Collective Activism and OUTCOM allows the school to

(1) Foster experimentation with content, processes and roles (Miles)

(2) Foster clear objectives (Miles)

(3) Promote sharing (Benne)

(4) Divest members of old accommodations (Schein)

(5) Encourage unfreezing through coercion and disconfirmation (Schein)

(6) Internalize change in its members (Schein)

(7) Provide an environment for risk (Miles)

(8) Use group process structures (Schein)

(9) Heighten awareness (Miles)

(10) Be task or problem oriented (Guest)

(11) Force achievement through use of a time limit (Miles)

(12) Reward achievement and performance (Drucker)

(13) Use the halo effect, the Hawthorne effect and the placebo effect to increase cohesion and productivity.

(Loomis, Miles)

Specifically Collective Activism and OUTCOM achieve this kind of "disequilibrium" by

(1) Increasing individual awareness and responsibility to experiment

(2) Opening new channels of communication

(3) Identifying and clarifying problems

(4) Reexamining goals and programs

(5) Identifying and using conflict loci

(6) Juxtaposing diverse interests

(7) Scheduling very short "re-organizing" OUTCOMS

(8) Designing retreat action centers for planning

(9) Introducing self-destruct (time target)

mechanisms

(10) Encouraging inquiry

(11) Using placebo and halo effects

(12) Exposing and eliminating pluralistic ignorance, selective perception, combat fatigue and negative horn blowing

(13) Enhancing serendipity

(14) Reaccomplishing the process

Eliminate Decision-Making Based on
Authority, Vested Interest and Crisis Orientation

The present structure of schools does not permit innovative decisions to be made by autocratic and short-lived

force (page 104). More commonly, however, the present structure muddies the water of decision-making. (Sinclair, page 102 and Miles, page 105--also Griffiths and Brickell) Change in Schools is extremely slow (page 103). Often changes are the result of crisis decisions due to a combination of outside pressures and inadequate administrative ability (pages 90 and 97 to 102). Shared decision making in schools is a euphemism for "winning them over." (page 89)

Values, both personal and institutional, have changed necessitating man's moral, ethical and emotional involvement in the determination of organizational goals (page 58, 59 and 65). Motivational research (pages 60 and 61) and new theories of management (pages 60, 70-73) have led organizations to consider new approaches to and structures for decision making. Progressive organizations have developed new organizational structures, techniques and environments to facilitate innovative thinking (pages 65 to 70).

In organizations where these elements have been introduced "breakthrough" decisions are induced which move organizations to greater growth and achievement (pages 76-77). Where they are not part of the organizational fabric, decisions are made less effective because of accommodations and compromise and partial, open-ended commitment (pages 74-76).

Three major elements in Collective Activism and OUTCOM tend to eliminate ineffective decision-making. They are the use of decentralized effective work groups, new

communication networks, and innovative problem-solving processes.

Effective Work Groups

The available evidence strongly indicates that, throughout the long course of his evolution, man has been a group-living form. Moreover, it is very likely that the human group, throughout the history of the species, has been a powerful problem-solving tool, coping with all sorts of harsh and taxing environmental contingencies. It has been an adaptive mechanism par excellence. (Hamburg in Knapp, 1963)

Metropolitan society has seriously restricted and enfeebled the natural processes that enable people to form small coherent groups which live together and share the whole sum of experience. Industrial society has provided no functional substitutes. It may be that the restriction and enfeeblement of the forces that make such organizations possible are in themselves disintegrative. It may be that the preservation of our society depends on our finding ways to strengthen what has been weakened, to make the natural formation of basic small groups easier and more inevitable, or on our finding ways to transmit their vital essence to the larger groups that so tragically lack it. (Devoto in Homas, 1950)

For restoring the equilibrium of its members, for reducing threat, there is no substitute for the group. We are always amazed at this supportive and ameliorative strength of the group in freeing its members for creative and courageous acts. (Schein and Bennis, 1967)

When electrical shock accompanied drinking, thirsty rats alone drank less frequently than thirsty rats in groups. The lone rats even approached the water from which the shock came less frequently than rats in groups.

If a majority of the individuals making judgments have a fair chance (better than even) of being correct, then combined individual judgments will surpass individual judgment. (Zajonc, 1966)

An effective working group

- (1) Informal, comfortable atmosphere
- (2) Discussion pertinent to the task
- (3) Task is well understood
- (4) Members listen to each other

- (5) There is disagreement without tyranny of a minority
- (6) Consensus not majority is the basis for action
- (7) Criticism is frequent, frank and void of personal attack
- (8) Feelings about the task and the group are expressed
- (9) Assignments are made
- (10) Chairman does not dominate, leadership shifts
- (11) The group stops to examine itself (McGregor, 1960)

Human beings when they are thrown together for any length of time develop sets of attitudes toward one another that reflect the perceptual realization of one another's presence and coactivity. They may give rise to words, signs, gestures of recognition, or similar "acknowledgments" of the other person, or they may remain purely covert. The subtle signs of the awareness of such interrelationships are the most elementary forms of "rewards of participation."

When each of the actors in a group needs or seeks the other, be it ever so slightly or unconsciously, there arises a predictively operating condition that we can call a "collective structure."

There is a subtle, perhaps unconscious, building up of self-closing structures among the individuals. This emergence of "pluralistic integration" enhances group cohesiveness. There is a drive to be "at one" with the others evidenced in many experiments showing increased productivity as a product of coactivity.

Emphasis in organizing should not be put on fulfilling the needs of all the individuals. The whole personality or biological organism is no more involved in an organization than it is in a marriage--the principle of "partial inclusion." (Allport, 1962)

People come together for mutual benefit. Before they are associated they form unwritten expectations of each other--of how one will help to meet the needs of another. The persons then activate a repetitive cycle of interlocked behaviors--they form a "collective structure" or "collective reality." They have done so because in a world of constant change and crowded people, it is difficult to remove equivocality alone.

Proximity arouses additional reciprocal behaviors which can be interlocked to mutual advantage. All members are partially included to the extent that they are giving and receiving reciprocal satisfaction. (Weick, 1969)

It is usually easier to change individuals formed into a group than to change any one of them separately. (Lewin in Benne, 1961)

When AA is successful, the alcoholic stops drinking. Often he then helps others to stop drinking as one way of handling the new void in himself. (Leavitt, 1964)

Interlocking behaviors are necessary for action in a crowded world. Interlocked behaviors are brought about by

(1) the discovery and implementation of one or more mutually reciprocal behaviors

(2) the acknowledgment of this mutuality by others as a reward for activity

(3) the proximity of the people acting mutually

Small groups are more likely to make decisions than large groups because a set of persons must agree on

(1) some desired outcome

(2) a specified set of means to accomplish the outcome

(3) ways by which the means will be activated

(4) knowing whether the outcome was attained.

It is difficult to have this agreement with large groups. (Weick, 1969)

The Highly Effective Work Group--a model

(1) An HEWG is a part of a larger organization.

(2) Some persons are members of more than one work group thus providing linking functions.

(3) No HEWG dominates the life of any member. Members belong to other groups within and outside the company.

(4) Members press to specify those goals which are most important to them as individuals. This opportunity reduces conflict and tension.

(5) An HEWG has achieved a level of performance

(a) members are skilled in leadership and interaction

(b) members have a well established, relaxed working relationship

(c) members are loyal

(d) members are trusting and confident of others

(e) members have participated in the selection and use of integrated goals and values

(f) linking members coordinate goals and values of different groups

(g) acceptance of goals is determined by their importance to the group

(h) each member is highly motivated by the sharing of common values. "He is eager not to

let the other members down. He strives hard to do what he believes is expected of him."

(i) interaction, problem-solving, decision-making occur in a supportive atmosphere. Maintenance of personal worth, respect for all opinions is encouraged. Statements are depersonalized. Frankness, criticism and analysis are invited but balanced by a concern for personal security.

(j) leadership of HEWG is supportive. It is cooperative and shares information.

(k) members provide training skills for each other

(l) members accept group goals. There is not the resentment which might be evident in a hierarchial situation

(m) members have very high expectations

(n) members help each other

(o) creativity rather than conformity is prized

(p) operational conformity and procedures are accepted

(q) motivation to communicate is high

(r) motivation to receive communication without looking behind it for hidden intents

(s) attempts to influence are common

(t) more direct influence on leader by members

(u) mutual influence within group

(v) all members feel secure in making decisions because of shared goals and values

(w) selection of leader is made very carefully (Likert, 1961)

Thereby Collective Activism and OUTCOM in order to facilitate the integration of personal values and organizational goals rely heavily on effective work groups which

(1) Are natural and needed (DeVoto)

(2) Are supportive of their members (Schein)

(3) Can be more effective than individuals (Zajonc)

(4) Are more receptive than individuals to change

(Lewin)

(5) Can come to agreement quicker than a large group (Weick)

- (6) Invite criticism (McGregor)
- (7) Decide by consensus (Likert)
- (8) Make assignments (McGregor)
- (9) Circulate leadership (Leavitt)
- (10) Examine themselves (McGregor)
- (11) Have linking membership (Likert)
- (12) Develop interlocking "collective structures"

(Allport)

(13) Recognizes the "partial inclusions" of its members by avoiding "total" demands (Allport)

(14) Are made more cohesive by "pluralistic integration" and proximity (Allport)

Specifically, in order to increase the integration of goals, Collective Activism and OUTCOM use problem-solving groups

- (1) With overlapping and shifting membership
- (2) With alternating leadership responsibility
- (3) With built in mechanisms for mutual support
- (4) With time to be comfortable and to listen
- (5) With open, non-threatening criticism
- (6) With self-analysis check-points
- (7) With a limited tenure thus avoiding restricting

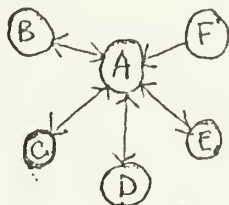
accommodations

- (8) With decisions by consensus

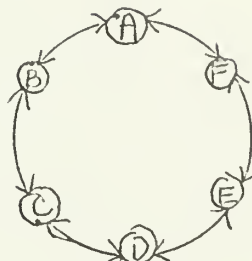
Communication and Learning

Tall organizations limit proximity and distort communication. (Weick, 1969).

1.



2.



Tests at MIT in 1949 on the effects of communication networks showed the wheel (1.) to be more efficient for the solving of simple and routine problems. But it showed the circle or decentralized type (2.) better for problems dealing with newness, creativity, flexibility and morale. (Bennis, 1966)

Open, temporary systems are apt to promote better communication because

- (1) a special language tends to develop
- (2) new channels are opened
- (3) proximity enhances liking and thus openness and sharing
- (4) roles are not allowed to develop which guard information or control it. (Miles, 1964)

Under experimental conditions these findings have emerged:

- (1) One-way communication is considerably faster than two-way communication.
- (2) Two-way communication is more accurate.
- (3) The receivers are more sure of themselves and make more correct judgments of how right or wrong they are in the two-way system.
- (4) The sender finds himself feeling psychologically under attack in the two-way system, because his receivers pick up his mistakes and oversights and let him know about them.
- (5) The two-way method is relatively noisy and disorderly.

One-way communication is not likely to be communication at all. It is more likely to be talk.

Authority may under ideal conditions of two-way communication cease to serve as a sufficient protection for inadequacy.

Clearly the responsibility for change does not have to lie solely with the changer. It can be shared by changer and changee or be taken over altogether by the person being changed. From the changee's viewpoint change is equivalent to learning, and learning is an active process. If teachers want to motivate their students to learn, one thing they can do is try to get the student to take the responsibility for his own education. Many psychiatrists and counselors will even argue that there is no real hope for effecting much "deep" change in clients unless the clients take such responsibility.

Learning and problem solving are active rather than passive processes. People don't absorb things, they work at learning. They search for information, they make decisions, they act upon their decisions, they remember, and they modify their decisions after observing the effects of their actions. People do learn from exposure to experience, but, in this context, experience means doing things to the world as well as letting the world do things to you. (Leavitt, 1964)

Thereby Collective Activism and OUTCOM attempt to produce communication which

- (1) Is two-way rather than one-way (Leavitt)
- (2) Is circular rather than centralized (Bennis)
- (3) Makes use of new channels (Miles)
- (4) Is unhampered by role expectations (Miles)
- (5) Invites open confrontation (McGregor)
- (6) Does not sacrifice understanding for orderliness (Leavitt)
- (7) Does not protect inadequacy through authority (Leavitt)
- (8) Shares with the changee the responsibility for changing (Leavitt)
- (9) Assumes that learning is an active not a passive process (Dewey)

More specifically Collective Activism and OUTCOM
really on

- (1) Dialogue, not memo or edict
- (2) New channels through interfacing
- (3) Reduction of role "importance"
- (4) Emphasis on individual responsibility and contribution
- (5) Divergent thinking
- (6) Exchange with other systems
- (7) Suspended judgment and solution
- (8) Non-pontifical, task-oriented discussion

Innovative Problem-Solving

It may be a mistake to equate orderliness with efficiency in group processes.

The "irrelevant" noise made by people in groups may represent attempts by members to satisfy personal needs. If that noise is forbidden expression, it may go underground but continue to distort the group's operation.

Conversely, there may be too little noise in a group, i.e., available relevant information may not be forthcoming because of barriers in the communication system. Some of these barriers may be mechanical, but many of them are psychological, like barriers created by status differences or interpersonal jealousies.

In either case, too much noise or too little, the preferred course would seem to be to promote rather than limit communication, i.e., to accept and deal with information about personal feelings and personal needs as well as information about pertinent facts.

Objectives create difficulties for groups so long as they are differently understood by different people in the group and so long as some of them are not out on the table.

The problem is to get decisions made when they are ready to be made and to get them made in a way that will lead to follow-up action by the people in the group after they leave the group.

A good deal of research evidence shows that decisions are carried into action most effectively when they are group consensus decisions.

Open two-way communication, clarification of people's feelings, freedom to object--these contribute to the ease with which consensus can be approached.

We don't have to watch groups much to realize that some people are idea men, others are navigators, still others bring wild ideas down to reality, and so on.

Navigational problems also plague groups. Groups can get so involved in content matters that they may lose direction. Periodic stops, to shift from content to process, can alleviate these difficulties. (Leavitt, 1964)

Solem (1958) showed that if a leader presented a solution to the group, the group either accepted or rejected it without stimulating further creative activity. However when the problem was presented to the group, they developed more acceptable and higher quality solutions.

Maier (1958) distinguished between choice situations (several alternatives presented) and problems (solutions to be generated). Groups in problem-solving situations tripled the number of solutions offered and incorporated more information and more viewpoints. (Maier and Solem, 1962)

Maier and Maier (1957) found that the quality of solutions could be improved by "developmental discussion" in which the problem was broken into parts as compared with free discussion.

(Maier, 1958) found that quality can be decreased by the leader's overconcern for a solution before the problem is fully exposed. He calls this "solution-minded" as opposed to "problem-minded."

Bennett (1955) has shown that merely arriving at a group decision, especially where consensus about the decision is perceived by the members, produces strong forces in the individual to act on the basis of the decision, implying strong individual commitment to the decision.

Maier (1960) shows that having the group find a second solution to the problem increases the quality without hindering group satisfaction, acceptance (commitment) or increasing greatly the time spent. (Maier and Hoffman, 1960)

Usually the effect of a decision is considered only in regard to its quality. Collecting information and sifting through alternatives is an effort to find the "correct" answer. "Although this position is sound in technological matters that do not involve people, one cannot assume that it is universally sound.... As soon as the behavior of people is involved, opinions and feelings introduce a second dimension."

High-quality decisions, on the one hand, require wisdom, and wisdom is the product of intelligence and knowledge. Decisions of high acceptance, on the other hand, require satisfaction; and satisfaction is the product of participation and involvement in decision making. Thus the method for achieving quality differs from the method for achieving acceptance; as a matter of fact they are in conflict."

Ideas for improvement are frequently expressed in the form of actions that others should take.... Thus the problem solver tends to overlook himself as an object of change.... Problem solving is most effective when it is in terms of "what we can do to improve the situation...." The tendency to blame others is a backward looking approach. The past is beyond control... only the present and the future are subject to change, and...controlled through decisions.

A screen to eliminate and choose from a list of alternative solutions

(1) eliminate solutions transferred from other situations. Even though the solution may be good, it doesn't solve the specific problem in the situation given.

(2) eliminate solutions supported by facts or interpretations of facts that are challenged by other members of the group. The challenge has to be backed by other facts.

(3) select solutions which are based on facts unchallenged.

(4) select solutions based upon an exception to a trend which can be explained.

Those selected should be evaluated in terms of

(1) cost and practical considerations

(2) how they are integrated or combined

(3) choose between alternatives or actions which are in conflict

(4) review extent of data support

(5) acceptability to group members

Human beings make many inferences; they have hunches and claim to have insights. These processes follow logical principles different from those that are pertinent to proof or deductive thinking. As a result one cannot use standard logic in evaluating the inferences

made by living organisms, who by nature go beyond what is known. It is our purpose to encourage inferences and inductive thinking yet keep them within the bounds of reality. (Maier, 1963)

Likert suggests processes for arriving at common solutions and objectives

a. My facts	analyzed and interpreted in terms of my experience	yields	my solution which I think is good and to which I am committed
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b. Your facts	analyzed and interpreted in terms of your experience	yields	your solution which you think is good and to which you are committed
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This results in

- a. Conflict: each person tries to force his solution
winner will be highly motivated
or loser will be tempted to sabotage
- b. Compromise: each person modifies by giving up a little
neither is convinced of solution and will
not be highly motivated to carry it out

same facts	analyzed and interpreted by each person separately in terms of his experience	Yields several solutions, de- pending on num- ber of persons and range of previous exper- ience. But be- cause of use of same facts, sol- utions are like- ly to be less diverse than in process 1	One solution achieved by con- flict or compro- mise and with corresponding motivational consequences as stated in process 1. But conflict and compromise apt to be less bitter than in process 1 be- cause solutions are less di- verse due to same facts

Same facts	analyzed and interpreted by group in terms of experience which is shared in the discus- sion process. This leads to less diverse experience be- ing focused on decision-making processes	Wide variety of decisions examined but narrowed to one solution	yields solution based on experience drawn on in the sifting and inte- grating done in seeking the solu- tion. Solution accepted by all as their sol- ution	Excellent solution, with each person highly motivated to carry it out well
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Thereby, in order to attend to the nonprogrammed tasks as well as the programmed tasks and to involve those responsible for changing in the determination of what the change will be, Collective Activism and OUTCOM have structured a problem-solving process which

- (1) Uses comfortable retreat locations for undisturbed problem solving (Schein)
- (2) Clarifies the problems (Maier)
- (3) Exposes all agendas (Leavitt)
- (4) Encourages group members to express personal problems and emotions (Leavitt)
- (5) Is "problem minded" rather than "solution minded" (Maier)
- (6) Focuses on problems not people (Guest)
- (7) Prioritizes problems and solutions (Drucker)
- (8) Uses "developmental discussion" (Maier)
- (9) Suspends judgment and holds off solutions (Solem)
- (10) Encourages divergent thinking, inferences and intuition (Maier)
- (11) Involves those who will enact the solution (Bennett)
- (12) Considers both quality and acceptance of a solution (Maier)
- (13) Scrutinizes its own group processes (McGregor)
- (14) Uses consensus (McGregor)
- (15) Assigns responsibilities and target dates to

group members (Drucker)

(16) Eliminates nonproductive processes (Drucker)

Specifically, Collective Activism and OUTCOM attend to innovative problem solving by

(1) Maximizing serendipity

(2) Forcing the group to decide through the use of deadlines

(3) Creating the opportunity for personal involvement in collective activity

(4) Utilizing available talents

(5) Using the retreat location

(6) Exposing problems, agendas, personal frustrations

(7) Focusing on problems

(8) Building priorities from problems

(9) Holding off solutions

(10) Considering the effect of decision-making

(11) Using consensus

(12) Assigning responsibilities

(13) Accepting failure

(14) Using an equivocal receiving system for an equivocal or ambiguous world

Thus Collective Activism and OUTCOM are built on seven major elements

Open and organic organizational structure

Action planning

Action management

Temporary systems

Effective work groups

Communication networks

Innovative problem-solving techniques

Each major element has many sub-elements. All of these elements and sub-elements really intend to accomplish a priority goal--the elimination of a dissociative attitude.

By personal involvement, use of conflict, individual responsibility, group support, toleration of failure, provision of a hope factor and urging commitment to a specific action, individual values will be served mutually with the growth and the identity of the organization. Hopefully, through these variables, individuals will be more eager to interact, and everyone in the organization may experience the pride of successful accomplishment and uniqueness.

CHAPTER VII

IMPLICATIONS

Today you are you! That is truer than true!
There is no one alive who is you-er than you!
Shout loud, "I am lucky to be what I am!
Thank goodness I'm not just a clam or a ham
Or a dusty old jar of sour gooseberry jam!
I am what I am! That's a great thing to be!
If I say so myself, HAPPY BIRTHDAY TO ME!"
Dr. Seuss

After suggesting several problems introduced by concepts previously developed, I wish to discuss some of the ramifications of five issues dealt with in this dissertation: (1) Collective Activism and OUTCOM, (2) the phenomena of small groups, (3) the future shape of organizations--particularly schools, (4) the problem of solving problems, and (5) individual values.

Problems

The most notable shortcoming of this study is its lack of real data and experimental findings in schools. The problem is not so much one of "Will it work?" but rather one of "What is it, what form will it take?" The theory is morally faultless--few can criticize a priority on performance and a call for group involvement. They are as American to contemporary organizational life as turkey and cranberry sauce are to Thanksgiving. But it will take some time to identify school people who are or who will become management

oriented and performance oriented. There are many existing myths extant in schooling which preclude this orientation. Thus, reliable school data will be slow to appear.

A second major problem is the non-universality of the approach which is advocated. Schools are havens for people who refuse to act unless they are preplanned to the teeth. Course guidelines, lesson plans, lock step schedules, seating charts, monthly tests, media equipment check-out systems, certification requirements, so on and so forth suggest the prepensely structured organizational attitudes common to most schools today. Many of those individuals are high performers. It will not be easy to demand performance from them while stripping away their security screens of syllabi, classroom and department autonomy and credentials. All those nude battleaxes will need protective covering during the trauma of change.

Third, unless OUTCOMS result in radical changes in schooling processes, the effect will soon become routine and superficial. The course of action is the key element in managed change. OUTCOM cannot stop with a catharsis and a set of written recommendations. Actors must be forced to act--the show must go on--and hopefully act on some breakthrough decisions which restructure the elements of staffing, organizing and curriculum--together.

Fourth, nothing here said can be taken too seriously--and that is said almost reverently. Robert Townsend

has said, "...if you're not in business for fun or profit, what the hell are you doing here?" People who accept Collective Activism and OUTCOM as nose-to-the-grindstone, irreversible decision making are simply playing in the wrong ball-park. Now that the full sermon has been pontificated, it can be summarized as "Do something now, and if it doesn't work, change it." That's all!

It's not something to get terribly upset about. But somehow the prospect of change invokes deadly seriousness--fanaticism, moralistic dogma, determination to see it through, emotional upset, insecurity--everything but enjoyment and whimsy. People who think they have solutions are kidding themselves. They may have answers, but not solutions. If something is changed, the change should result in educational profit or fun. Both are valid objectives. If neither occurs, the activity should be abandoned.

Other problems will be exposed in the five issues discussed in this chapter.

Collective Activism and OUTCOM

What are OUTCOM and Collective Activism trying to do? They present structure and a frame of mind for solving problems. They deal with conflict at organizational interfaces. They revitalize worn out processes and weary people. They direct change. When I asked the executive vice president of one large corporation how an organization is changed, he

recommended two steps.

"First, you clean house." My interpretation of this is that you throw out the dirt and dead wood. You determine what you want to do and what you want to do first. A housewife in a new house makes every effort to immediately make it hers (or ours); make it a home. She changes little things-- a light fixture, a new shelf in the bathroom, a little landscaping. She throws out junk. She checks out drawers and cabinets, "gets the feel" of distances from refrigerator to sink to stove, orders a longer phone cord. She chooses wallpaper, cleans windows, greets the neighbors, learns about milk delivery, doctors and carpools. She is already manipulating the socio-technical system. And she is working, acting. Her actions are plans. She is eliminating waste and providing for efficiency--economical, psychological and physical.

The second recommendation was more to the point. He said, "It's like we used to deal with a wild horse. You get on him and kick hell out of him before he figures out a way to kill you!"

Collective activism and OUTCOM try to help school "owners" do these two things--clean house and take charge. The first activity is a participative one. It only risks involvement. The second activity is one of commitment. It involves risk.

Thus, Collective Activism and OUTCOM are both required to make significant change in schools. Other

problem-solving techniques can probably be used with Collective Activism, but none seem so suitably matched in terms of objectives. Several things have been gained by this structural approach to change.

(1) Communication

- (a) Communication is free and open
- (b) Problems have been identified
- (c) Rumor has been distinguished from fact
- (d) Program objectives have been specified
- (d) Wasteful programs and processes have been eliminated

(2) Decision-making

- (a) New sources of feedback have been developed and old sources are being re-sensitized
- (b) Collaboration is used
- (c) Teachers are involved in decision-making
- (d) Authority has been decentralized
- (e) Consensus is used for decision-making
- (f) Both the quality dimension and the acceptance dimension have been considered in decisions

(3) Role and Contribution

- (a) The superintendent has been provided role support
- (b) Teacher and other roles have been differentiated
- (c) Individuals have more than an economic connection with the school system

(4) Performance

- (a) Feedback is resulting in planned changes--adjustments

and adaptations--in the organization

- (b) New energy has been created
- (c) Procrastination is less likely
- (d) Day-by-day progress reports of teachers and students in action plans are available
- (e) High performance has been identified and recognized as appropriate
- (f) Leadership has been developed

(5) Internal Processes

- (a) Subsystems are working without grinding gears
- (b) Conflictful sources are juxtaposed for interrelated effort
- (c) Group process "skills" have been developed
- (d) Equifinality, exchange with the environment, homeostasis, self-regulation, internal interdependence, information utilization are all functioning

(6) Self-renewal

- (a) Original ideas have been stimulated
- (b) Experiments are encouraged
- (c) Failure is tolerated and useful

It is the demand for performance, collaborative performance, which is paramount. Whether it is every six months or every six years, the use of a temporary system allows people a new perspective on what they are doing and what they want to do. People do get sick of meetings and do get frustrated by committees. Why? Because it is the same

group with built in accommodations, hearing the same old stories and "ought to's" or it is a new group of reluctant volunteers who feel awkward, trying to study an issue which is vaguely defined and who lack authority to do anything about it anyway. Meetings and committees are extra duties, cutting into personal time schedules with no reward except "and-I-want-to-thank-all-the-members-of-the-committee-who-are-too-numerous-to-name" banquet kudos.

The temporary system is accomplishment oriented. Get in, do the job, and get out. It is a roll-up-the-sleeves effort.

Something which has not been given enough emphasis in this description is the educational benefit to participants of the kind of temporary system called for. Action planning requires maximum utilization and regard for time. In schools time and performance are unnaturally related. Employees are rewarded for time as are students. The general rule is "the longer the time, the greater the reward." This goes for salary increases, credentials, course credit. Often the student who spends the longest time taking a test is judged to be most competent and thorough. "How much time did you spend on your homework?" is an indicator of achievement. School people have learned to treasure time, but in a way absolutely opposite, to normal productivity.

Collective Activism has borrowed many ideas. The laboratory training structure is appropriate--the length, the

consultant use, the number of participants, the place, the free exchange--but we are much more concerned with organizational task accomplishment. We believe self-growth and interpersonal relations will develop with the psychological success of active involvement.

Retreats are useful, but too often unspecified in terms of decision-making structure. The "objective outsider" helps also to keep the group from digressing or "lecturing."

Organizational development systems focus on change, but they are usually long term--often one, two, three years or longer.

Consultant use is important to help groups change, but it ordinarily takes the form of an "input-resource person," creating dependency, and not task oriented. Consultants participating in Collective Activism are continually trying to do themselves out of a job.

Research and development should not take the entire burden of organizational renewal, because it has no more access to relevant, affective data than anyone else. It often does not seek decision-making participation from other departments.

Although a means of improving feedback for organizational revitalization has been suggested, the most common use of Collective Activism will be at a peer level--department heads, principals, superintendent and supervisors--rather than an oblique or vertical slice of the educational community.

The intent is to set a model for problem solving and priority determination which will spread throughout the school system. OUTCOM sessions will be periodic highlights allowing each part of the school system to reestablish an identity which best utilizes its personnel. At the supervisor-superintendent level these OUTCOM sessions might most often treat the problems of public relations, budget or recruitment. At the principal level the questions to be considered are more apt to be curriculum revision and staff utilization.

But wherever OUTCOM takes hold, Collective Activism asks each individual, "What am I toing to do about this, and when?" "Is it the most important thing to be doing?" "Is this a group effort or a railroad job?" "What old tasks have been eliminated?" "Have the real problems been exposed?" "Is a creative idea being rewarded?" "Am I being truthful, fair and completely open?" "Is this something we can do well?"

It was suggested earlier that Collective Activism is both a short-term and a long-term strategy. The second part of the strategy is more utopian in terms of the nature of schools now.

It is hoped that successful results of action groups will spill over into the classroom. It is hoped that individuals in action groups will learn to be more responsive to the concerns of others, will learn to deal with ambiguity, will learn that there is more than one answer, will learn to encourage divergent thinking, will learn to live with group

activity. It is hoped that temporary systems will become a way of life in schools.

It is hoped that schools can be tilted 90 degrees and that the once all-important departments or disciplines become home bases for teachers and students to touch from time to time while they are fully concerned with projects which involve all departments. Perhaps the action plans designed by interface action groups will become the curriculum for all--short-term projects that are of concern to all involved.

It is hoped that this kind of matrix organization will develop profit centers, centers of competitive learning where students and teachers will strive to be number one, the most profitable.

It is hoped that methods will be designed to demonstrate performance in all areas, not just the cognitive, and that performance and accomplishment will replace the old extrinsic reward system. It is hoped that learning will be voluntary and selective, and that each individual will be recognized as a source of knowledge and authority.

It is hoped that schools will fail and be accepting of their failures, and that each school will acquire a uniqueness, something it is really good at, something that will create pride and success for its actors. But these are only hopes...or are they? Hopes are more than "impossible dreams." Kurt Lewin defines hopes as "coordinations of present reality...with the individual's wishes for the

the future." (Miles, 1964)

Most of all it is hoped that people learn to work together and enjoy it, that they learn the warmth and exhilaration of cooperative work. It is hoped they will experience the glow of cooperative accomplishment--that spontaneous note of harmony which comes more and more often with practice. It is hoped that individuals learn to laugh over serious things, learn the job of learning, learn how to learn. These are the hopes of Collective Activism.

The electronic age has shortened the gap between action and reaction. They have almost become one. We must learn to throw ourselves into that action and lead it somewhere. OUTCOM goes on in the midst of action. It is action. It is short! Four days is not sufficient time to lose sight of the battlefield. It is not an appendix in-charge-of-planning. It is a way of organizing. OUTCOM asks, "Where do we want to be?" It uses past problems, which are real and hot--not some future dreamland. It uses available resources, existing strengths and performance, to shape future direction. It is planned metamorphosis.

The group determination of a course of action, as here suggested, is predicated on man's fallibility, his individualism and nonconformity, and his search for enjoyment--the inalienable rights. In this spirit ten observations about organizations are proposed which help describe this point of view:

(1) Organizations are only charts--the static representations of dynamic and interpersonal sensitivities and processes.

(2) Organizing is human enterprise; a field of socio-technical relationships.

(3) Crisis orientation is self-perpetuating, purposeless and enervating.

(4) Perfection in planning is impossible. The number of alternatives people or machines can analyze is limited.

(5) Decision making is situational.

(6) Needs change and people making decisions change.

(7) Actions sometimes precede goals.

(8) Individual needs and desires necessarily affect group decisions.

(9) Problem solving which builds a course of action is fun, involving, achieving, rewarding.

(10) Personal satisfaction of achievement is as important to individuals as the product produced or the reward received.

Collective Activism and OUTCOM are attempts to de-fragment and de-rule schools and people. They bring people and activities together, and they capitalize on contingency. They call for a fluid rearrangement of tasks and responsibilities. Roles become meaningless, jobs and relationships become important.

The procedures proposed will be inappropriate for some people. For those who are comfortable and most productive in a structured psychological environment and who are shopping list oriented, other change concepts will be more useful. For those who think by acting, Collective Activism might provide a rationale for their behavior, and OUTCOM might give them a means of encouraging the participation, commitment and performance of others as well as themselves.

One intent of this dissertation is to present an alternative to three common and prominent elements in contemporary theory about organizations:

Rationality in planning

Human relations

"Change-agentry"

Enough attention has already been given to rationality and human relations in this dissertation. They are important, but in many cases, they are the results, not the pre-meditators, of action and performance. This interpretation of organizational life has been practically ignored in writings except by some people such as Karl Weick, Peter Drucker, George Odiorne, Dwight Allen and Paul Sorensen.

I do want to comment on the notion of "change agent" used so often in literature on change. First, the origins of this particular view seem to be in agriculture, and I am not sure that agriculture and education are very analagous. Hopefully, some day education will develop the sophistication

to grow new hybrids or strains, test their usefulness in terms of increase or quality and then disseminate results to local schools. But to borrow the "change agent" without having the research and development operation as a base seems a gross oversimplification of the entire change-organizing process.

A process has been presented to seek solutions as opposed to most change strategies which suggest solutions as though change were something you could pick up in your hands, pat lightly and cook to a desired temperature--thus creating the language of "change agents," "resistance to change," "diffusion and dissemination," "testing and revision," "adoption," etc. All those terms are object oriented. Change is not something out there which you inject into something in here.

Furthermore there is a mentality operating when these words are used where it is assumed that school people need to be prodded, manipulated, powered, influenced, trained, convinced, duped and generally tolerated by the cunning persuaders and purveyors of outside expertise. In short, the notion of a change agent as someone who comes into a school system, or is already in the system, to plan and implement innovation, just as a milkman might deliver milk, is an impossible role and a self-defeating job.

The organizational development notion is much the same where one department is operating to "develop" the

organization. I objective to this compartmentalization of change. Activist decision making is the organization, creates the organization. Collective Activism sheds old skins and generates new limbs and organs. It is not symptom-oriented; it is evolutionary and internal. It does not administer; it grows with. It is the "enacted environment."

For eons man has contemplated the mystery of the seas. Drake, Melville, Costeau, the Titanic have struggled with the oceans and attempted to harness their power. It is symbolic that within this generation the Surfer, in defiance of the traditional subservience of man to that mystic and formidable foe, has in his leisure taken the power of the always changing, always moving wave and with his body and a board made it his challenge, his vehicle, his plaything, his subject--for the ocean is "where the action is."

Groups

Floyd Allport is rather insistent on the misleading use of some words signifying a kind of collective reality. Words such as "crowd consciousness," "group think," "crowd psychology," even "group decision-making" lend qualities to groups which are really qualities of individuals. The abdication of individualism is an issue of survival which we must meet head-on in schools. Our efforts to individualize instruction are meritorious. But it is also vital that young people "learn organization." They must learn how to use

groups to enact the environment. Each individual has a unique responsibility to a group. We must learn how to exercise it and how to learn how to exercise it. Groups do not solve problems; individuals in groups do.

At the turn of the century learning theory thought of the learner as an empty organism responding automatically to stimuli. Teachers had the responsibility to produce the stimuli and thereby mold the child. Later learning became "child centered." The learner was thought of as a dynamic organism acting on, not just receiving, stimuli. Learning became a process that included emotional and affective involvement as well as cognitive "connecting."

Now learning theory must deal with a third area of development. It must become group-centered, where the learner as a member of a group must act on the basis of social perception and group dynamics.

McLuhan says that in the search for deeper explanations the Hawthorne experimenters "missed the all-important fact that when the workers are permitted to join their energies to a process of learning and discovery, the increased efficiency is phenomenal."

William C. Schutz postulates that "every individual has three interpersonal needs: inclusion, control and affection." Collective Activism attempts to provide for these needs, but the content of those needs and the way those needs are satisfied are areas which have been discussed by

very few educational writers and practitioners.

Perhaps the next and higher stage of life is not another creature, a mutation of man which will have eventual dominion over the land and man. Perhaps it will be that which we might be most afraid of--the organization; an entity which is often perceived by man as an ant colony. But unlike the limited capacity of the ant, man is a learning, choosing animal with enormous and complex potential.

The signs of this new "being" are everywhere--"group" music, "group" training sessions, "group" encounter, "group" sex, "group" living. "Groupies" are not a passing fad. They have roots in the evolutionary process. It is no accident that in the year Frank Sinatra retired, the Rolling Stones were revered.

In the most simplistic terms man is using the knowledge that two heads are better than one. He also acknowledges that other parts of the body can have communal benefit and that group emotion, group morality and group will are the sources of greatest satisfaction and progress. The organization has overcome the age of the individual and the great man. Where are our Goethes, our Jeffersons, our Henry Fords? They are less visible because the contrast with the "common man" is less pronounced. The organization engulfs men like a giant tide. It is more powerful, more productive and becoming more appealing.

We are in an experimental stage. The groups are in

many forms. Their processes are diverse. Their purposes are in conflict. The evolutionary destiny is not clear, but the trend is undeniable. The change began sometime in the hundred years separating Thoreau's independent objection to American injustice and Gandhi's mass protest of British rule. It continues with Mayor Daley and the Chicago Seven. The world now loves and hates in groups.

At this experimental point in time theorists have been studying group rationality--new terms such as brainstorming and brainwashing--and group emotions--sensitivity training and the drug culture. Now we are suggesting study and experiment in the area of group will--activism and commitment.

The attraction of the temporary system, a partner of the small group, cannot allow us to endorse its use without reservation. Temporary systems have no particular organizational or value structure. Office Christmas parties, Congressional investigating committees, Nazi concentration camps, constitutional conventions and art exhibits are temporary systems which have purposes ranging from indictment and elimination to conviviality and determination of purpose. The length of tenure of a temporary system varies from a half-time lockerroom meeting to a ten-year man-in-space program. The Manhattan Project and Woodstock were temporary systems.

We must maintain a balance between the permanent

system and its temporary systems which help promote adjustment and adaptability. Governance, values, maintenance (that curious word has many meanings--in Eric Hoffer's terms, the quality of "maintenance" is one of the best indices of the quality of life), defense against enemies (pollution, war, apathy) rewards, protection of rights and justice, extension of culture are all reasons for the maintenance of permanent systems. These issues have not been addressed except as they may present interfaces with the ad hoc view dealt with.

The concern here is with processes to view these issues, for instance how to maintain our institutions in a world of change, but such analyses of these functions, important as they are, do not mean replacement of the existing machinery by temporary systems. Lobotomy and lobectomy are ways of resolving anxiety where the pathology is critical, but they also eliminate the satisfaction and job of achievement. In this way the use of temporary systems are not replacements or re-creations (such as produced Frankenstein) but therapeutic environments to examine dysfunctional organs and to recommend and act on ways to repair them.

The establishment of these environments, temporary systems, do not in themselves resolve the tension. Ad hoc arrangements have always been used to look at problems--use of workshops, committees, consultants--but another ingredient is necessary, the commitment to act. This employs will. That

is why we have gone beyond the description of the temporary system. It does not solve problems in and of itself. It needs an additional process. OUTCOM hopefully will begin to make use of will to go one step beyond the recommendation; committee style, of a pathological disturbance.

Organizations of the Future

Daniel Katz and Robert Kahn suggest that literature on organizations and organizational change actually tend to avoid talking about organizations! Theorists do talk about principles--scientific inquiry, democracy, and new concepts of authority--and they do talk about people--management behavior, motivation, training--but very few discuss the future shape of the organization itself and its processes. This is an area rich in experience and poverty stricken in theory.

In the case of schools we know even less. The lack of knowledge by school people of industrial and business developments is indicative of the lack of communication through writing and observation. In schools only minor and primitive use is being made of matrix structures, profit centers, cost centers, programmed budgeting, research and development, management information systems, job enlargement, and quality control systems. It is appalling that schools are still made of bricks and have no reception areas or attractive lobbies. Flip charts, comfortable carpeting,

conference rooms, open work spaces, glass tables, contemporary duplicating and communication systems, upholstered chairs, and sculpture are still rarely seen. It seems strange that children can be trusted in this kind of environment at home but not in school.

Do Collective Activism and OUTCOM contribute anything positive to this void? Insofar as problem-solving structures and psychological environments is dealt with, yes. Otherwise, what future schools will really look like remains to be seen.

Why are people in schools reticent about commitment and change? Individuals consent to be governed in society by a minority because they believe their interests will be promoted. Workers consent to management because they believe that management policy is in their interest. In education, however, management is generally not visible. Management is the community, the board, the state, etc. Even principals complain about the "policy-makers" who determine curricula, school practices and state regulations. Collective Activism and OUTCOM are intended to make educational management visible. Policy will be determined, displayed and reacted to by community, students and staff. That is a future organizational direction--an ancient and still unfulfilled promise.

With acknowledgment to Robert Guest, it is predicted that Collective Activism will help provide the following conditions of authority.

- (1) All individuals will have "leeway to act."
- (2) The "time perspective" of management will fall somewhere between crisis orientation and autism.
- (3) The teaching-learning process will be a mixture of vertical and horizontal influences.
- (4) Individuals--teachers and students--will have a clearer and larger "span of cognition." They will perceive what contribution each is making to the whole.
- (5) The use of primary action groups will allow individuals to avoid feelings of alienation and helplessness and to experience feelings of inclusion, affection and control.

As a rather whimsical interlude I list some other characteristics about future organizations which Collective Activism and OUTCOM will hopefully facilitate.

Adaptive	In touch
Fluid Leadership	Optimistic
Diverse	Humorous
Catholic	People oriented
Supportive	Reinvesting
Informative	Competitive
Purposive	Participative
Receptive	Questioning
Utilizing	Listening
Ecological	Time target oriented
Personalized	Rewarding
Unique	Interesting
Metamorphic	Concentrated
Enjoyable	Voluntary
Enactive	Diagnostic
Integrated	Researched
Interdependent	Technological
Risky	Prioritizing
Confident	Contingent
Measuring	Active

Problem-Solving

Clyde Bemis, who has spent a lifetime managing a small dairy farm in the middle of Maine, puzzled for two years how to help clear away the stumps and boulders in a rifle range at a nearby summer camp. Although he had all the equipment necessary--tractors and bulldozers--the problem was that the range was located across a stream from the main campgrounds. One day we sat with drinks and Clyde explained how he thought he had it figured out.

Using one of the camp swimming rafts, he had figured the displacement of all the barrels used to support the raft together with the buoyancy of the wood making the raft (he had a sixth grade education) and compared the total to the weight of his smallest bulldozer and two men. "It might just make it," Clyde said, Since we had two days remaining before the camp opening, we decided to squeeze in the operation before the kids came.

The next day we made the necessary preparations--cleared away the waterfront lemon lines, took up the anchors on the chosen raft, tied the raft where we could use it the next day, found two 20-foot timbers, tied two large ropes on two corners of the raft and made a final survey of the rifle range and both shores. The day before the campers' scheduled arrival Clyde arrived at 8 a.m. with his bulldozer. We floated the raft far enough from the shore so that its underside would not be grounded with the bulldozer aboard.

We placed the timbers from the shore to the raft a tractor's width apart. Two people walked out into the water and tried to hold the raft in place while two more held the large ropes on shore so the raft would not float away. Clyde got up on the bulldozer, started it, took a sip of his beer and inched down the beach.

Slowly he drove onto the timbers. Halfway to the float the timbers were bows ready to snap and clyde pushed the accelerator slightly. He drove onto the raft, stopping in the middle. The raft submerged completely under water, then rose again, finally leveling off about a half inch above the surface of the stream. Our weight pushed the craft lower. Tenderly we two men, toe deep in water, paddled our cargo across the stream.

At the other shore the entire operation was repeated, and as the tractor touched land a roar of applause resembling a Cape Kennedy success, broke the silence of the onlookers on both shores. Clyde was right!

The dulldozing job was not much at all. In about two hours Clyde had the rifle range smooth. He asked me if I saw anything else before attempting the return trip. One boulder in front of the impressive shooting stand was aesthetically displeasing though no safety hazard. We decided to remove it and then return. After a couple of jolts with the dozer blade, the rock came loose, but suddenly a grinding death rattle signaled the instant demise of the

machine. There, squarely between the shooting stand and the target area, sat Clyde in the throne of a defunct bulldozer. Turning to me he remarked, "Been waiting six months for that to happen."

"Transmission?"

"Ayah."

Slowly Clyde began to chuckle and soon the woods echoed with the laughter of two slightly alien and ridiculous human beings.

Finally Clyde took off his cap and scratched his head. "We could use a block and fall and one of these trees and pull the tractor out of the shooting area. I could come and get it next winter. What to you think?"

"Well..."

"'Course it wouldn't look pretty."

"No."

"We can bring the big tractor to the other side of the stream and pull this one across by using the winch and cable."

"Can you really do that, Clyde?"

"Not where the bulldozer sets. Couldn't get it around the stand. We could try to get this one fixed. What do you think?"

"It's about all we can do."

"'Course we can't fix it because I couldn't get to Bangor for the parts until Tuesday, and I doubt that they'd

have anything anyway. Leaves only one way. I can drive the other tractor up along the stream to the rapids and try to cross at the rocks. Then I could drive down through the woods, hitch on this one and tow it up and around again. What do you think?"

"Sounds impossible."

"You can't shoot very well with this tractor where it's setting."

"No."

"Kids are coming tomorrow, aren't they?"

"Yes."

"We better get started."

The rest of the story is almost unbelievable. Clyde rowing back across the river, driving six miles to his farm, loading his second dozer on the truck, bringing it to camp, driving the dozer a mile up through the woods to the rapids, crossing the slippery rocks and falling in several times, driving down through the woods to the range, tugging the dead dozer out of the shooting area, removing the last rock, manicuring the whole range area, snaking back up through the woods dragging several tons of dead weight, crossing the rapids, driving back to his truck, loading the tractor and riding back to his farm.

When he came into camp early the next morning to help get the waterfront back in shape, Clyde remarked, "You know, I was a little tired yesterday, especially at the end

when I had a couple of quarts of water in the boots."

Problem solving and planning sometime work out a little differently than expected. What works on paper is not always the final answer. From this anecdote and the assumptions made about OUTCOM, several ingredients--some unforeseen--are necessary to the problem-solving process. They are listed in the approximate order in which they might occur. But any order is just as good.

- Need
- Theory
- Analysis
- Commitment
- Risk
- Use of Resources
- Competency
- Work
- Laughter
- More Commitment
- More Risk
- Time Press
- More Theory

Theorists usually do not allow for Clydes. Resourcefulness, initiative, spontaneity and necessity are not usually accepted elements in problem solving theory. Certainly fun is a rare factor. Problem solving is learning. Through experience we have learned that people learn better when they can use their own resources, when they are self-motivated, when there is a personal need and when the subject matter is timely. These are all unpackageable elements.

Careful consideration is important but so is a capability to take advantage of a spontaneous opportunity. Those who espouse systematic change call this capability

contingency planning. But contingencies cannot always be anticipated. Collective Activism calls this capability serendipity or whimsy--the use of available resources and inclinations.

In schools we must devote short periods for intense planning. Surprises can be expected and changes assumed. We must develop a frame of mind that enables us to expect and enjoy the unexpected. This involves simultaneous planning and action activities.

McGregor writes, "Research on creativity suggests that one of the correlates of innovation is the ability, not merely to accept, but to enjoy complexity and apparent disorder!"

Values

In conclusion, what we are talking about after all else is stripped away is exercise of the will. "What will we?" is the question. In terms of decision-making the machine and its several human imitators has us outwitted in all ways but one--what is it we want to do? The machine can take in more data, process it and store it with much greater speed and capacity than can the brain. It is estimated that soon computers will handle 400 trillion computations each hour. It can tell us what we can do and even what we should do, but only by some self-deceiving manipulation of reason can it tell us what we want to do.

The issue then is one of fallibility. Perfection is the pride of the machine. Error is the pride of man, for when there is a possibility of error, there is a possibility of choice, and the ability to choose is man's dearest possession. Yet schools deny children and teachers the very essence of their humanity. Schools are preprogrammed against failure.

Failure in schools is morally wrong. Many grading systems range from excellent to poor. Poor. Not lack of accomplishment. Collective Activism suggests we program for failure. I want groups to fail, perhaps as in the aerospace industry--four failures for every one success.

We keep waiting for the perfect solution, the ideal model, hoping that The Iceman Cometh. We are stymied. Since we cannot fail, we cannot succeed. Before children enter school they know that there is only one kind of human smarter than a young teacher--an old teacher. Schools have that aura of perfection. Our curriculum consists of bits and pieces which can be taught perfectly--grammar, spelling, geometry, history facts. Divergent thinking is uncomfortable because it leads us off the track where we might have to admit we are not so sure. Conflict is eliminated.

Why must it be so preplanned and logically pure? Why don't we set up equivocal situations to process equivocal information and stimuli. We wonder if the "open school" was so labeled from systems terminology. If not, it should have been for its environment provides a multitude of situations

to meet a multitude of needs and desires. It is truly an open system. Contrast this with the lecture hall or the five-rows-of-five classroom where information and energy from the outside have no receivers. They are unequivocal settings. Senseless.

Collective Activism and OUTCOM depend absolutely on trust. They always ask participants what they want to do.

All people have a right and a responsibility to express their choices. We must start somewhere. We must believe in people, trust them, let them learn, and be with them. It is not easy to resolve to leave the world of fantasy and perfect endings. It's not easy to come down from the Magic Mountain into the conflictful world of action and ambiguity. Fear of punishment for mistakes and fear of loneliness make it even more difficult. If people were to have friends and help to face the problems of that New World, the apprehension might not be so great. Collective Activism and OUTCOM can provide that help.

...Christopher Robin, who was still looking at the world with his chin in his hands, called out "Pooh!"

"Yes?" said Pooh.

"When I'm--when--Pooh!"

"Yes, Christopher Robin?"

"I'm not going to do Nothing any more."

"Never again?"

"Well, not so much. They don't let you."

Pooh waited for him to go on, but he was silent again.

"Yes, Christopher Robin?" said Pooh helpfully.

"Pooh, when I'm--you know--when I'm not doing Nothing, will you come up here sometimes?"

"Just me?"

"Yes, Pooh."

"Will you be here too?"

"Yes, Pooh, I will be, really. I promise I will be Pooh."

"That's good," said Pooh.

A P P E N D I X I

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR--A TRIP WITH BOB TOWNSEND

It has been difficult to decide how acknowledgment should be made to the author of Up the Organization. I have chosen to show my deepest appreciation by using only his words in describing a style of leadership which is compatible with and partly responsible for Collective Activism.

Describing a model of decision making without describing a style of management is like serving Rice Krispies without milk. There may be other kinds of leadership behavior which can combine with activist decision making successfully, but I see no reason to hunt for them. Here then is the wisdom and whimsy of Robert Townsend--

And God created the Organization and gave It dominion over man.

Genesis 1, 30A, Subparagraph VIII

In the average company the boys in mailroom, the president, the vice-presidents, and the girls in the steno pool have three things in common: they are docile, they are bored, and they are dull. Trapped in the pigeonholes of organization charts, they've been made slaves to the rules of private and public hierarchies that run mindlessly on and on because nobody can change them.

Solution Two is nonviolent guerrilla warfare: start dismantling our organizations where we're serving them, leaving only the parts where they're serving us. It will take millions of such subversives to make much difference

Fire the whole advertising department and your old agency.

In my book anyone who has an assistant-to should be fined a hundred dollars a day until he eliminates the position.

...most of the computer technicians that you're likely to meet or hire are complicators, not simplifiers. They're trying to make it look tough. Not easy. They're building a mystique, a priesthood, their own mumbo-jumbo ritual to keep you from knowing what they--and you--are doing.... Before you hire a computer specialist, make it a condition that he spend some time in the factory and then sell your shoes to the customers.... This indignity will separate those who want to use their skills to help your company from those who just want to build their own know-how on your payroll.

When the vast majority of big companies are in agreement on some practice or policy, you can be fairly certain it's out of date.

Before you commit yourself to a new effort, it's worth asking yourself a couple of questions: "Are we really trying to do something worthwhile here?" "Or are we just building another monument to some diseased ego?"

Caution: let sleeping directors lie.

It's a poor bureaucrat who can't stall a good idea until even its sponsor is relieved to see it dead and officially buried.

Contracts in my opinion usually lose the men they are designed to hold. And keep those who have no other basis for staying. At the root of the disaster in American education today is the tenure system--whether of those non-teaching professors at Berkeley or of Al Shanker's lard-assed civil servants in Brooklyn. And don't think the kids don't know it.

Firing people is unpleasant but it really has to be done occasionally. It's a neglected art in most organizations.

I've already applied (no acknowledgment) for the job of guide to the Harvard Business School in 1995. By that time, tourists will be wandering around it like Stonehenge, asking, "I wonder what they used to do here?"

...a function you might describe as vice-president in charge of anti-bureaucratization.... In addition to his regular

duties, it's his job to wander around the company looking for new forms, new staff departments, and new reports. Whenever he finds one that smells like institutionalization, he screams "Horseshit!" at the top of his lungs. And keeps shouting until the new whatever-it-is is killed.

...how about making it a matter of law that the federal government for the next hundred years will have to kill two old activities for each new one they start?

(Management consultants) are people who borrow your watch to tell you what time it is and then walk off with it.

Marketing departments--like planning departments, personnel departments, management development departments, advertising departments, and public relations departments--are usually camouflage designed to cover up for lazy or worn-out chief executives.

Fire the whole personnel department.

If you have to have a policy manuel, publish the Ten Commandments.

P.R. Department. Yes fire this whole department, too. If you have an outside P.R. firm, fire them too.

Yes, fire the whole Purchasing Department.

Nobody should be chief executive officer of anything for more than five or six years. By then he's stale, bored, and utterly dependent on his own cliches.

Don't print and circulate organization charts.... It wouldn't hurt to assume, in short, that every man--and woman--is a human being, not a rectangle.

"What did you plan today, dear?"

* * * * *

You'll have to give up being an administrator who loves to run others and become a manager who carries water for his people so they can get on with the job.

Focus your imagination on helping your employees get everything they can deserve, you and they will probably come back to life and get rich.

Ask yourself two questions every morning:

- (1) Who do I least want to see?
- (2) What do I least want to do?

Chances are they'll be your top priority for that day.

A good man deserves direct confrontation with his boss--especially when they're not in full accord. If all he gets is visits and memos from an assistant-to, he's entitled to blow his stack and go find a smarter boss somewhere.

Do it now. The telephone is still underused. How many times have you read something and said to yourself: "I need to talk to him?" You may never meet him, but chances are you can talk to him. Pick up the phone. Now.

By far the best two books I've ever read on the subject of getting things done through organizations are: Managing for Results by Peter F. Drucker...and The Human Side of Enterprise by Douglas McGregor.

Get to know your people. What they do well, what they enjoy doing, what their weaknesses and strengths are, and what they want and need to get from their job. And then try to create an organization around your people, not jam your people into those organization-chart-rectangles. The only excuse for organization is to maximize the chance that each one, working with others, will get for growth in his job. You can't motivate people. That door is locked from the inside. You can create a climate in which most of your people will motivate themselves to help the company reach its objectives. Like it or not, the only practical act is to adopt Theory Y assumptions and get going.

Remember, you really want them to make some important decisions and some mistakes.

The only way I know to get somebody training is on the job.

"I've gone away. Until I get back Henry is chief executive officer. Please don't hold up decisions. Anything you do in my absence will have my complete support when I return. R.T."

When I called in the telephone operators had my messages. The mail room also had a rubber stamp: "I'm away. Please handle this in your own style and don't tell me what you did. Thanks. R.T."

And don't underestimate the morale value of letting your people "waste" some money.

Do you realize that your people can't make long-distance calls without filing out a report? Do you know what they have to go through to hire somebody--or buy something? Stop running down your people. It's your fault they're rusty from underwork.

So get out and ask them if there's anything you can do to help. Pretty soon they're standing right out there in the open with nobody but themselves to blame. Then they get to work, then they turn on to success, and then they have the strength of ten.

Don't be needlessly cruel in firing someone.... If you don't feel compelled to destroy his self-regard, he can move on quickly without scars.

People should be allowed to work out their own office hours and vacation patterns.

A time to walk around the job. A time to contemplate it--and a time to just laugh at it.

Job descriptions--insane for jobs that pay \$150 a week or more.

Never castigate. Babies learn to walk by falling down. If you beat a baby every time he falls down, he'll never care much for walking.

Provide the climate and proper nourishment and let the people grow themselves. They'll amaze you.

A sure sign of frustration is putting on weight. Watch for it on the people who work for you. Remove the cause and the weight will come back off.

When I became head of Avis I was assured that no one at headquarters was any good, and that my first job was to start recruiting a whole new team. Three years later, Hall Geneen, the President of ITT (which had just acquired Avis), after meeting everybody and listening to them in action for a day, said, "I've never seen such depth of management; why I've already spotted three chief executive officers!" You guessed it. Same people.

* * * * *

It isn't easy to concentrate. I used to keep a sign opposite my desk where I couldn't miss it if I were on the telephone (about to make an appointment) or in a meeting in my office: "Is what I'm doing or about to do getting us closer to our objective?"

(Money) must come as a by product of some worthwhile objective or result which is sought and achieved for its own sake.

Everybody must be judged on his performance, not on his looks or his manners or his personality or who he knows or is related to.

I've long held the conviction that it's much less expensive to recruit from the top of the barrel by paying top wages.

And look at the rewards we're offering our people today: higher wages, medical benefits, vacations, pensions, profit sharing, bowling and baseball teams. Not one can be enjoyed on the job. You've got to leave work, get sick, or retire first. No wonder people aren't having fun on the job.

The staff-services office is luxuriously furnished and the girls are recruited from the ranks of the best secretaries in the area.

No-no. Reserved parking spaces. If you're so bloody important, you better be first one in the office. Besides, you'll meet a nice class of people in the employee's parking lot.

A good manager carries his players' home phone numbers with him and has an understanding with them that, just as he is available to them until eleven o'clock any night so they are available to him on the same terms.

Thanks. A really neglected form of compensation.

Conviction is a flame that must burn itself out--in trying an idea or fighting for a chance to try it. If bottled up inside, it will eat a man's heart away. If you're the boss and your people fight you openly when they think you're wrong--that's healthy...keep all the conflict eyeball to eyeball.

Condition your people to avoid compromise. Teach them to win some battles, lose others gracefully.

Stamping out racism will be a process, not an act.

If you already have unions, then deal with them honestly.

Like everything else you do--keep your expense account honest.... Not because you might get caught, but because honesty has to start somewhere.

"It is against our policy for any employee to accept from any company or representative of a supplier company... any gifts of value.... This means, of course, returning any such gifts which may be delivered to your home or office."

If you don't do it excellently, don't do it at all. Because if it's not excellent it won't be profitable or fun, and if you're not in business for fun or profit, what the hell are you doing here?

True leadership must be for the benefit of the followers, not the enrichment of the leaders. In combat, officers eat last.... Most people in big companies today are administered, not led. They are treated as personnel, not people.... Something is happening to our country. We aren't producing leaders like we used to. A new chief executive officer today, exhausted by the climb to the peak, falls down on the mountaintop and goes to sleep.

"When the best leader's work is done the people say, 'We did it ourselves!'"

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